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CONTENTS

THE WEEK

Congress 533
Pure Food 533
Criminal Cases Against Corporations ... 534
The Passing of the Spoils System 535
Reciprocal Trade 535
The Pacific Cable 535
Political Movements in Pennsylvania ... 536
Political Movements in Other States 537
The Mutual Insurance Companies 538
Children's Rights 539
Commencement Notes 540
Karl von Hartmann 542
A Moral Tragedy 542
Mr. Garrison's Retirement 543
Canadian Congregationalists and Presbyterians 543

EDITORIALS

Not a Labor War 544
The Sunday Question 546
One Way to Do It 547
The Spectator 549

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES

The Western Federation of Miners 551
By an Occasional Correspondent

An Ascent of Vesuvius 555
By George Kennan

San Francisco Rising from the Ashes ... 562
By a Staff Correspondent

Impressions of a Careless Traveler: Striking a Balance 568

European Travel-Hints for Economical Tourists 571
By Edwin Asa Dix

BOOKS AND AUTHORS

The People of the Steerage 577
Comment on Current Books 578

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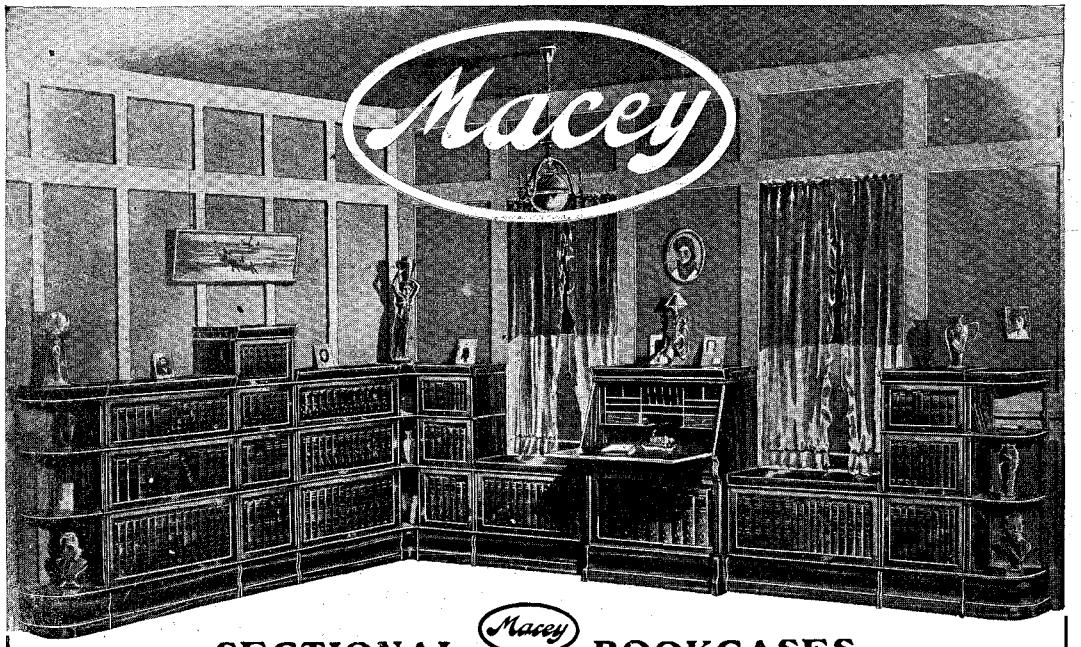

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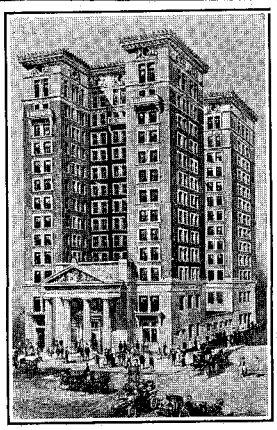

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The Outlook

SATURDAY, JULY 7, 1906

The Close of a Great Session

By the passage of the Rate Bill, the Meat Inspection Bill, the Pure Food Bill, the Immunity Bill, and the Naturalization Bill last week Congress brought to an end a session that will be memorable. Of these all but the last extend the power of the Federal Government over the operation of the great corporations, and the last one puts into the hands of the Federal Government what has been done in a confused and haphazard manner for a hundred years by the several States. By means of the Railway Rate Bill Congress has strengthened the arm of the executive branch in restraining and controlling the commercial bodies which have grown so great as to threaten to wrest from the Federal Government the real control of commerce between the States. By means of the Meat Inspection and Pure Food Bills Congress has not only enabled the executive branch of the Government to protect the people from unscrupulous dealers in fraudulent foodstuffs, but it has also increased indirectly, but very really, the effectiveness of laws on the subject already enacted by several States. By means of the Immunity Bill Congress has given new force to the executive branch in its function of enforcing the laws, by depriving violators of the law of certain artificial refuges which they have heretofore enjoyed. And by means of the Naturalization Law Congress has protected American citizenship from the corrupting influence of those who have made citizenship a thing of barter. All these laws, therefore, are an expression of the growth of National power and efficiency. They are part of the movement by which the Nation has been maintaining its self-preservation. In the earlier and simpler days, before facilities in communication and transportation had bound people together, distribution of the power of government in many hands was possible; but with the growth of great business combinations, requiring control, increase in the authority of the central government has been necessary. The bills which were enacted last week constitute the answer of the American people to the question, Shall the Government be stronger than its creatures? The answer has been an unmistakable and emphatic affirmative.

The Fight for Pure Food

A rigid and effective law for the inspection of meats, and one equally efficient for securing pure food, drink, and medicine, have passed both Houses of Congress. If the law is enforced, as we believe it will be, the inspection of meat and meat products will hereafter be scrupulous. The efforts of those who wished to make the law sanction a lax and casual inspection have been foiled. The House Committee on Agriculture, of which Mr. Wadsworth is the Chairman, having receded from its position on every essential point, the Senate, wisely, we think, agreed to recede on two points which, though important, were not fundamental. The law as it now stands is to all intents and purposes the Beveridge amendment without the requirements that the cans be dated and that the packers should pay the cost of inspection. The consumer will not be able to tell how old the product is; and, by his taxes, he will have to pay for the inspection which saves him from being cheated; but he will hereafter know that the material, the processes, and the products in the meat-packing business have been carefully inspected, and that what he buys in cans as well as in the bulk is not only wholesome, but that it is what it purports to be. This is a result for which the people have good reason to be grateful to President Roosevelt.

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The London "Spectator" has recognized the President's achievement in this respect when it says that the English people realize fully that "a man who is neither a Socialist nor a Revolutionist, but a friend of well-ordered government and moderate counsels," has been "fighting the battle of honest government," and that, owing to the constitutional limits of executive power, he has been "obliged to fight his formidable antagonist with one hand tied behind his back." We believe that this fight has been all the more effective because it has been in the open. European countries have made this occurrence an occasion of criticism of America; but they are inclined to conceal their own defects; a democracy, however, makes concealment, once an issue is raised, ultimately impossible. We think that in this case, at least, democracy's way has been justified. A still more important though perhaps less sensational and dramatic victory has been won by the passage of the Pure Food Bill. Except in one important particular, this bill is the strongest that could have been perfected from the bills of the two Houses. The patent medicine lobby has been completely routed. Last week we recorded its partial defeat. It succeeded in retaining until almost the last moment a provision allowing alcohol necessary for the dissolving of ingredients to be used in a proprietary medicine without a statement of the fact on the label. Even this concession to the nostrum maker has been eliminated. Now, according to the law, any and every amount of alcohol must be stated on the label. The one important respect in which the Pure Food Bill has been weakened is in the excision of the provision that the Department of Agriculture should fix food standards. On the merits of this provision, however, there has been an honest difference of opinion. The pure food measure is stronger than any which its advocates supposed could be gotten through Congress.

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More Criminal Cases Against Corporations

Last week we noted the facts that five railways in the West and two freight brokers were convicted of violation of the law; that the railways were fined and the broker and his clerk were sentenced to imprisonment; and that prosecutions will be commenced at an early date against the Standard Oil Company for similar violation of the law. This week we are able to report that the managers of five ice companies in Toledo, Ohio, have been sentenced to pay a fine of $2,500 each and to serve six months in the county jail. Incidentally, they suffer a further penalty because the local price of ice, which had been increased by the combination, has dropped from thirty to forty per cent. as the result of the conviction. The most encouraging feature about these prosecutions is that they have resulted in several sentences of imprisonment. It may be expected that men will take the chances of a fine in order to get the chances of a larger profit. But the hazard of imprisonment they will be more slow to take. Quite as important is the announcement that Attorney-General Moody has directed that suit be brought against a large number of railway companies to recover penalties for disregarding the safety appliance law. Our readers do not need to be reminded that the accidents on American railways, owing to a lack of proper safety appliances, are far in excess of those in any other country. Some years ago Congress passed a law requiring the introduction of certain safety appliances on all railways engaged in inter-State commerce. Delay in compliance with this law was asked by the railways and granted. Its provisions have, however, been apparently ignored by a number of railways, the officers of which have either been careless or have deliberately adjudged that it is cheaper to pay for accidents than to prevent them. The protection of shippers from unequal freight rates is less important than the protection of passengers and employees from needless disasters. It is to be hoped that one result of the prosecutions about to be brought by the Federal Government against the railways which have disregarded the safety appliance law will be to call public attention to this aspect of railway conditions, and eventually to secure from Congress some provision, patterned after the English law, requiring inter-State railways to report all acci-

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dents to a department of the Federal Government for governmental investigation and report.

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The Passing of the Spoils System

The spoils system received a further blow last week and appointment by merit a further emphasis through President Roosevelt's issuance of an executive order making important changes in the methods of appointment and promotion of our consular officers. The order was issued to effect certain desirable reforms as explained by Mr. Root, Secretary of State, in a letter to the President transmitting a draft of the proposed order:

> The main features of the order were embodied in the early forms of the Consular Reorganization Bill passed at this session of Congress, but they were dropped out, largely for the reason that their enactment by Congress would appear to be an infringement upon the President's constitutional power to appoint consuls. Your adoption of these rules by executive order will be free from that objection, and judging from the very positive commendation which many members of both Houses have expressed for the proposed change in the method of appointing consuls, I do not doubt that the new system will receive the hearty approval of the Senate and of Congress whenever occasion may arise for an expression upon the subject.

The President's order recites the acts of Congress authorizing the Executive to make regulations for the Consular Service and to classify such officers after examination and announce regulations relative to selection of these officers, "subject always to the advice and consent of the Senate." Consular offices salaried at more than $2,500 are to be filled entirely by promotion from the lower grades, based upon ability and efficiency. Vacancies in the lowest two grades, paying salaries of $2,000 and $2,500 per annum, are to be filled—first, from the consular clerks, agents, and deputies who shall have entered the service after examination, and, second, by appointment of persons who shall pass satisfactory examinations by a board headed by the Chief of the Consular Bureau, upon subjects including at least one modern language other than English, and the natural, industrial, and commercial resources of the United States, especially with reference to the extension of American commerce, political economy, and commercial, international, and maritime law. No person rated at less than eighty per cent. is eligible for certification, nor may any one be examined who is under twenty-one or over fifty years of age, or who is not of good character and mentally qualified. Even such persons must be especially designated for examination by the President, due regard being had to the rule that as between candidates of equal merit appointments shall be made so as to insure proportional representation of all the States and Territories in the service, "and neither in the designation for examination nor certification for appointment will the political affiliations of a candidate be considered." In countries where the United States has extraterritorial jurisdiction the candidate must possess a fundamental knowledge of common law. Finally, it is declared that no promotions shall be made except upon efficiency as shown by the work that the officer has accomplished.

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Reciprocal Trade

At the recent Convention of the National Manufacturers' Association the Committee on the Tariff laid emphasis on two special fields for reciprocal trade—Germany and Canada. Though, so far as the United States is concerned, Germany has postponed until next year the date of taking effect of her new tariff, even under present conditions our relations are extremely unsatisfactory. Some reciprocal arrangement of trade with Canada is an even more pressing need. A third field is that of the Philippines. Three classes opposed the passage of the Philippine tariff bill in the United States Senate—the growers of sugar, tobacco, and rice. There is a demand in this country for 2,700,000 tons of sugar every year. We raise 1,100,000 tons, thus leaving 1,600,000 to be imported. To the objection that the Philippines would soon produce the whole 1,600,000, we may answer, with Secretary Taft, who addressed the Convention, that their production would then have to be increased sixteen times! To the objection that

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the domestic price may be affected it is sufficient to say, with the Secretary, that it would not be accomplished by Philippine sugar, admitted free or at a much reduced rate. As to tobacco, according to the Secretary, we make 7,500,000,000 cigars annually, and the manufacture is prodigiously increasing, but the Filipinos make only 150,000,000 a year, and export only 80,000,000. Why, therefore, should Connecticut and Pennsylvania tobacco-growers be afraid of Philippine competition? Lastly, the growers of rice say that if we open the market to the Philippines, the home market will be destroyed. But we spent a very large amount of money last year to feed the Filipinos rice; is it likely, then, that they will hurt the market seriously? Mr. Taft referred to the question of labor in the islands, declaring that the minute their industries increase, the price of labor will increase. Yet, as he concluded, more than all to be considered is the feeling which the Filipino will have regarding this country's sincerity. The Filipino will judge from the Senate's deplorable inaction, as well as from the praiseworthy action in the House on the subject of the Philippine tariff, whether we mean to keep our promise to be helpful to him and to give him good government.

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The All-American Pacific Cable

The furtherance of international interests and amity as well as a new triumph for American engineering and commercial enterprise came to the fore last week in the exchange of the following messages:

His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Tokyo:

I am glad to send to your Majesty over the American cable, which has just been completed between Guam and Japan, and thus unites our two countries across the Pacific, a message of sincere good will, and the assurance of the earnest wishes of the Government and people of the United States for the welfare and prosperity of your Majesty and your Majesty's empire.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

The President, Washington:

I have just received with great interest and appreciation the kind message sent by you over the cable which has recently been laid between Guam and Japan, and which will shortly be open to the public. I am highly gratified to know that the first telegram by this new line which unites our two countries should convey to me the assurances of the friendly sentiments of the Government and people of the United States for myself and my people. I most cordially reciprocate your expressions of good will and good wishes.

MUTSUHITO.

These messages express more than a conventional courtesy. The American President is alive to the fact that Japan has rendered service to the United States by declaring for commercial and territorial integrity wherever possible, by saving China from dismemberment, and by securing her own independence. On his part the Emperor of Japan must be equally alive to the fact that the maintenance of his country's newly acquired position among the nations of the world is largely dependent on the Anglo-Japanese alliance and on friendly relations with America. Turning from political expediency to commercial supremacy, it is a satisfaction to report the successful termination by Americans of the greatest single ocean cable enterprise yet undertaken. The original offer to construct a cable over eight thousand miles long, without Government aid, was made nearly five years ago by the late John W. Mackay, President of the Commercial Pacific Cable Company, to the late John Hay, Secretary of State. Mr. Mackay proposed to do what no other private person had ever offered to do; indeed, what our Government itself was unwilling to do. The proposition encountered in Congress vigorous opposition, which, however, was overcome a year later. Three years ago the last section of the cable to Manila was completed, thus bringing to a close an enterprise trebly without parallel in the history of ocean telegraphy; for, first, the route followed is unique because of lack of natural stations; secondly, it traverses the longest uninhabited waste of waters on the face of the globe; and, thirdly, it has to deal with greater ocean depths than any previously encountered.

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Political Movements in Pennsylvania

The independent Republicans who, associated together as the Lincoln party, rescued Philadelphia from its ring rule, and the Democrats of

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Pennsylvania have united on a ticket in opposition to the regular Republican party. This fusion was made possible by the enthusiastic action of the Democrats in indorsing Lewis Emery, Jr., the candidate of the Lincoln Republicans for the Governorship. As a consequence of this action the executive committee of the Lincoln Republicans has issued a call reconvening the party delegates in order that they may substitute for three of their own nominees the corresponding nominees of the Democrats. In making their platform the Democrats pronounced in favor of practically the same reforms that the Lincoln Republicans advocated. In addition, they indorsed Mr. Bryan as a candidate for the Presidency. The struggle now is a simple one between the regular Republican organization under the leadership of Senator Penrose, and the united organizations of Republicans and Democrats who are opposing machine politics and urging stricter State control of corporations and corporate franchises. In the meantime Governor Pennypacker has given the cause of honest elections in Philadelphia a most substantial impetus. He has made some excellent appointments to the Board of Registration Commissioners, who will carry out the provisions of the personal registration law passed by the Pennsylvania Legislature last winter. One of the Commissioners is Mr. Clinton Rogers Woodruff, who has been a leader in the long fight for the enactment of the law. The Constitution of Pennsylvania, adopted in 1874, was so drawn that an effective personal registration law was impossible. It provided that any man's vote could be sworn in on his own oath and that of one other; consequently fraudulent voting in certain sections of the larger cities was made easy of accomplishment. In 1896 the Municipal League of Philadelphia prepared a constitutional amendment opening the way for personal registration. It was defeated. Again it was introduced and passed, only to be vetoed by Governor Stone. The Supreme Court of the State, however, declared the veto ineffective. But the amendment had to be introduced again, as every amendment to the Constitution must pass two successive Legislatures. It was successful. Then it had to be submitted to the people. It was adopted by an overwhelming vote. Still the fight was not ended, for the amendment had to be made effective by the passage of a satisfactory law. After another campaign the law was passed. Its operation is now in the hands of a competent Board.

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Political Movements in Other States

In Maine the Democrats have nominated Cyrus W. Davis, twice Mayor of Waterville, for Governor, and have made the issue the repeal of the Sturgis law and the resubmission to the people of the question of State prohibition. If the issue is not obscured, the contest ought to be interesting. The Sturgis law was enacted for the purpose of making the enforcement of prohibition more effective. Opposition to this law is opposition to law enforcement; but opposition to prohibition may be advocacy of law enforcement. We hope that the issue will not be confused. The Republicans renominated Governor William T. Cobb, and declared against resubmitting to the people the question of the prohibitory law.——In Vermont Percival W. Clement has been nominated by a fusion of Democrats and of Independents who advocate the continuance of local option and attack the Republican administration. The Republican nominee is Fletcher D. Proctor, the son of the Vermont Senator.——In Iowa the fierce struggle between the tariff revisionists, under the leadership of Governor Cummins, and the "stand-patters," inspired by Secretary Shaw, for the control of the Republican organization is of more than local interest. The outcome of this struggle may have no small effect upon the attitude of the Republican party toward the maintenance of the present unjust tariff schedules.

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Kentucky's Old Home Week

The New England institution of "Old Home Week," inaugurated by Governor Rollins, of New Hampshire, a few years ago, was brilliantly introduced

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in Kentucky by the city of Louisville during the third week of June. Kentucky also has sent off her swarms into other States to the number of more than six hundred thousand, very many of whom have achieved distinction. Kentucky has given to Illinois seven Governors. Abraham Lincoln and Jefferson Davis were her sons. Her name is redolent of adventure, of hardihood, of romance. The home-coming of her children was naturally commemorated with enthusiasm. A floral parade, a spectacular pageant, concerts, old-fashioned games, corn-huskings, apple-parings, etc., contributed to the festivity. There was "Foster Day," on which Stephen Collins Foster, author of the popular song, "My Old Kentucky Home," was commemorated by the unveiling of his statue, for which Kentucky school-children have contributed, and school-children paraded by thousands. There was "Daniel Boone Day," when a statue of the famous pioneer was unveiled, and tributes paid to his memory and that of other distinguished founders of the State. There was "Greater Kentucky Day," with barbecues and camp fires, when the story of Kentucky's contribution to other States and the Nation was told. Louisville served as hostess for the State, each county being represented by its "favorite daughter" together with the County Commissioner to greet its returning citizens, some of them from afar. One old man is said to have come on foot from western Missouri. Prizes were awarded —one to the ex-Kentuckian who had come from the greatest distance, one to the most aged ex-Kentuckian present, etc. Such a beginning, though its opulence can rarely be repeated, deserves a sequel of frequent visitations animated by a similar sentiment. Every such home-coming strengthens the common feeling which makes of our many States one people.

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The Mutual Insurance Companies

The names of the International Policy-holders' Committee who will name tickets of trustees for the Mutual Life and the New York Life Insurance Companies to be voted on by the policy-holders on December 18 next have been announced. They are men of National reputation from different sections of the country and from different professions, including such men as Cardinal Gibbons, Judge George Gray, Richard Olney, ex-Judge Alton B. Parker, ex-Secretary of the Navy Benjamin F. Tracy. We do not, however, believe that these men give their personal sanction to the following statement issued contemporaneously with the publication of their names and purporting to be issued on their behalf:

> For the first time in their lives the policy-holders of the New York and Mutual Life Insurance Companies will be able to cast votes which have not been chloroformed in advance. The Wall Street financiers must now look to the ballot-box for a continuance of their manipulation and control of nearly $900,000,000 of insurance assets.

There are men on the Boards of Trustees of both the insurance companies as well known as those on this Policy-holders' Committee; the publication of such a statement as this on behalf of the members of the Committee indicates, what is almost certainly true, that in the main they must act as sponsors for men less well known than themselves who are practically managing the campaign. If there were some large question of policy to be determined next December, as, for example, whether these insurance companies should continue to pay commissions to agents, or whether they should abandon the agency business and trust, as savings banks do, to spontaneous investors, a campaign might be educative and so useful. But a purely personal campaign, in which the only issue is, Which of two sets of men equally honorable and high-minded shall control the business of these companies? is distinctly disadvantageous, and will be emphatically so if it is to be conducted in the spirit of the above paragraph. The Policy-holders' Committee could do nothing so wise as of their own initiative to invite a conference with the present Boards of Trustees of the Mutual Life and the New York Life in an honest endeavor to come to some common agreement as to the personnel of the future administration of the two companies. Nothing could do more to re-establish

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confidence in life insurance than such an agreement. It is not—certainly it ought not to be—an impossible idea, and as certainly the initiative must, of course, come from the Policy-holders' Committee. If it is to come from them, it must doubtless be initiated, not by the men who have organized this Committee, but by some of those who have been invited to serve on the Committee and have accepted the invitation.

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Children's Rights

No philanthropic movement of the present time has spread more rapidly and more widely than the Children's Court for the reclamation of juvenile offenders. First instituted in Chicago seven years ago, it is now instituted in forty cities of twenty-two different States, has sprung up in Europe, and in far-off Australia has already achieved signal success. But, as Judge Lindsey, of the deservedly famous court in Denver, says: "If the juvenile court is designed to keep children out of prisons and jails, we ought to have something to keep them out of the juvenile court." The Juvenile Improvement Association in Denver is just that sort of thing, and Judge Lindsey, in an open letter last May, suggested a National organization on that line. His basal idea needs only to be stated to win the approval of all just men: we should prefer to correct the wrong conditions that pervert child-life rather than content ourselves with correcting the wrong things done by the perverted child. A meeting called at Chicago in June brought together a large number of promoters of the juvenile court movement to discuss Judge Lindsey's plan of improving upon it. Some form of National organization, not superseding but federating all local organizations now existing for the protection and betterment of children, was declared to be desirable, and a committee was appointed to draft a plan with a statement of the work proposed, and to report at an adjourned meeting. One thing greatly needed is an educational propaganda throughout the country, especially in the towns and smaller cities, where the evil conditions notorious in the great cities undoubtedly exist. This would require field secretaries, and a bureau of information for the host of inquirers now asking what to do. A National organization would certainly promote the economy and the efficiency that result from co-operative effort, and could give strong backing to efforts for better legislation in the interest of children. National interest in this is already manifest in Senator Crane's bill before Congress for the creation of a Children's Bureau in the Department of the Interior, for the ascertainment of the facts on which good laws must be based. Such laws, as in Colorado and New York, must safeguard children by holding parents and others to due responsibility. One of the healthiest symptoms of our National life is the wide upspringing of a new solicitude to secure the right of children to be well born, well safeguarded, well taught and trained.

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Unjust and Unwise

It is reported in the New York "Times" that Judge Lindsey has been offered by John D. Rockefeller $5,000,000 as an endowment of the National Juvenile Improvement Association, and that he has promised not to accept the money. The reason for the declination is said to be that the acceptance of this money has been protested against by some prominent leaders in social settlement work, who are in thorough sympathy with the methods of dealing with juvenile crime of which Judge Lindsey's court is probably the most striking example. Whether the facts are correctly reported or not The Outlook does not know, but it takes the occasion to reaffirm its conviction that money is never "tainted," and that if a man proposes to do good with money which belongs to him he is to be encouraged and supported in so doing, however the money may have been acquired. Of course, if the money really belongs to some one else to whom it can be returned, it is not to be accepted from the *pseudo* owner—not because it is tainted, but because he is not its owner. The action as reported seems to us to violate two fundamental principles of fair dealing. First, Mr. Rockefeller is not to be condemned as having acquired this

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money by unjust methods without having an opportunity to confront his accusers and to be heard in his own defense. Second, if it be true that he has by unjust methods taken his money from the community, it is difficult to conceive any better way by which he could return it to the community than by using part of it to endow an organization for the prevention of crime by the reformation of juvenile criminals. If the story is true, we wish that some one else who is engaged in the same work might accept this endowment from Mr. Rockefeller and use it in the beneficent purpose to which he proposed to devote it.

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Commencement Notes: Money for Science

Harvard won the boat race at New London! Next to this unusual fact the chief event of importance in connection with the Commencement at Cambridge was the address by Professor Edward C. Pickering on "The Aims of the Man of Science." He commented vigorously on the lack of means for carrying on scientific work in comparison with the magnitude of the means for carrying on any practical work, and declared that a liberal foundation for research, administered solely in the interests of science and by scientific men, is one of the great needs of the time. He urged the application to scientific investigation, and especially to astronomy, of the combination of skill which has carried many business enterprises to such a height of prosperity, and proposed the building of a great reflecting telescope of seven feet aperture, mounted in the best location, probably in South America, kept at work photographing the sky every clear night under the direction of an international committee of astronomers, copies of the photographs to be sold at cost. This would bring the best photographic material within the reach of every astronomer, and Professor Pickering estimated that its cost would be less than half a million dollars. Mr. Charles Francis Adams, speaking for the Class of 1856, declared that Harvard to-day needs twenty millions of dollars, or the doubling of its present endowment, in order to pay its professors as they ought to be paid and carry on its work. The degree of LL.D. was conferred upon the Hon. Ethan Allen Hitchcock, Secretary of the Interior; and President Eliot, whose words on such occasions are always selected with the greatest care and discrimination, described him as "fearless and patriotic." Those who recall the thorough reorganization of various land offices and the prosecution of high officers of the Government for fraud without reference to their position or influence, to political threats or popular clamor, will strongly indorse President Eliot's phrase. In a very interesting address Mr. Hitchcock declared that he could not have carried these prosecutions to a successful end without "the inspiration, example, and support, at all times and under all circumstances, of President Roosevelt."

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Commencement at Yale

Some notable utterances at the Yale Commencement are worthy of record. The baccalaureate of President Hadley was significant for its use of the elemental demand and promise of Christianity, "Believe on the Lord Jesus Christ and thou shalt be saved," to correct the low ideals of the commercial and industrial community. This text, so often presented in the terms of an idea to be believed, was presented throughout in terms of the moral ideal to be pursued with faith in its supreme value for the realization of the noblest manhood and most successful life. Justice Brewer, of the Supreme Court, speaking before the alumni of the law school, made a prediction that seemed to some to bode obstacles yet to be encountered by recent legislation for the control of corporations: "When the matter of legislation by commission gets to the courts, they will be found upholding the Constitution with the same fidelity as ever since the days of John Marshall." President Mellen, of the New York, New Haven, and Hartford Railroad, who received the honorary degree of Master of Arts, made a brief address at the alumni dinner, admirably concise and incisive in its presentation of truths in which all agree theoretically, while dividing dia-

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metrically in applying them to concrete cases. Its main thesis was, Let every man who is clamoring for the reform of corporation management begin with self-reform. The head of the most detested corporation could have said every word said by Mr. Mellen, but it was so cleverly said as to carry unanimous applause. The Chinese Ambassador, Sir Chentung-Liang-Cheng, on whom the degree of LL.D. had been conferred, was the central figure of the occasion. His speech showed that he had mastered our political colloquialism as thoroughly as he had mastered ball-playing in his student days at Andover. His account of the work of Yale men in China, especially that of his countrymen graduated at Yale, was felicitously conceived and phrased, and no other speaker was so warmly acclaimed. Of class reunions, the semi-centennial of '56 was starred by the eloquent and vigorous address of its most prominent member, Justice Brewer, at the alumni meeting. It was a splendid protest for the American idea of the liberty of the individual, and for safeguarding it against all encroachment, whether by corporations or by labor unions. College classes generally disappear from the stage after their half-century celebration. The class of 1853, which initiated the intercollegiate regatta, and among whose surviving members are George Shiras, formerly of the Supreme Court, Edmund C. Stedman, Andrew D. White, and James M. Whiton, came to the front again, holding its "Triennial of the Second Series" upon its fifty-third anniversary, and commemorating it with an original Latin ode by Dr. Whiton—a "Palinodia" of the song written for June, 1853, sung to the tune "Where, O where are the Hebrew Children?" and beginning

"Ubi sunt professores senes, (*bis*)
Olim qui nos hic docebant,
Semper nobis laudandi?
Animae in caelum redierunt; (*ter*)
Formae jamdiu pulvis sunt."

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The Report of the President of Yale

The report of President Hadley, of Yale, which was made public last week, deals in a vigorous, frank, and unconventional spirit with several topics of importance in college administration. With regard to the pay of college professors, which is a matter of serious import to those who do not wish to see the best equipped and most efficient men either driven from the calling of the teacher or hampered in their work, President Hadley urges that only men of first rank should be entitled to the grade and pay of the full professor. If in any department no man can be found of such grade, President Hadley declares that "the place should be filled by an assistant professor." This, he says, will not only leave places of high rank open to which younger men can aspire, but it will also enable the college authorities, by reducing the number of full professorships, to increase the pay of all ranks of teachers. President Hadley also urges that some plan be adopted to give the competent undergraduate "reasonable encouragement to study." He speaks of the plan adopted at Princeton as "the ideal system from the students' standpoint." This preceptorial system, which has been described in The Outlook, brings a larger number of instructors into contact with the students. "The American colleges," says Mr. Hadley, "are watching with great interest the result of the experiment at Princeton. The thing which seems to stand in the way of its general adoption is that it is uneconomical." He continues:

> Not only does it increase the cost about $75 apiece for each student, but it employs the energies of a large number of good teachers in helping a relatively small number of pupils. The former difficulty would be met by an increase in tuition fees—though it is doubtful whether the loss due to making a place a rich men's college would not outweigh the gain obtained from superior instruction. The difficulty of getting a sufficient number of competent preceptors to deal with the great mass of American college students seems a more fundamental and insuperable one.

In regard to athletics, President Hadley upholds the Yale method of putting control into the hands of undergraduates, advised by graduates. He argues against the policy of making the college authorities responsible for the conduct of athletic games and the preservation of sound athletic tradition. With his declaration that the Yale policy "has amply justified itself" there will be

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many strongly to disagree. The sound and wholesome sportsmanship characteristic of the English universities is due to the fact that the dons have maintained from year to year the standards which the undergraduates of themselves would fail to respect. Not the least interesting and significant part of the report is the announcement that Yale and Columbia have arranged to carry on in co-operation courses in preparation for consular or commercial service, somewhat like those offered in France and Germany. Columbia does, on the whole, the larger share of the work on the linguistic side, and Yale on the economic side. A student may now pursue a course at the two institutions and receive a certificate which "will be issued by both universities jointly;" and if his work warrants it, he may receive "at the university where he has done the major part of his work the degree of Master of Arts or of Doctor of Philosophy." This is a new and striking exhibition of the fraternal relations which have been developing between universities in this country.

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Karl von Hartmann Karl von Hartmann, who has passed away at the age of sixty-four, early became a man of note. Men have occasionally become captains or statesmen of distinction at an early age, but rarely, if ever, philosophers. The "Philosophy of the Unconscious," by which among his many books Hartmann is best known, he produced at the age of twenty-seven. Its immediate effect was brilliant. Between 1870 and 1875 it called out fifty-eight works in attack or defense. Hartmann affirmed that the Spirit of the Universe is "an unconscious world-soul, simultaneously present and purposively efficient" in all atoms, organisms, and minds, and that consciousness grows out of the disturbance of the peace of "pure, unconscious spirit" by the rise of organized matter, breaking the previous unity of the unconscious idea and will, setting them in contradiction, and bringing in the evil and the pain of existence. Thus Hartmann reached the pessimistic doctrine with which his name is linked—that this world is so thoroughly bad that its non-existence would be preferable. Yet a curious sort of optimism lighted this dark scene with a ray of hope. The victims of existence were counseled to bear its grievousness with cheerful devotion to the advancement of intelligence, since in the course of time the major part of the conscious world will become sufficiently wise to come to a simultaneous agreement to renounce existence. What the unenlightened residual minority will then do we are left to conjecture. Though translated into many languages, Hartmann's "Philosophy of the Unconscious" contributes little or nothing of value to the advance of thought, and will find its ultimate place in the library of human vagaries. The personality of its author can be regarded with far more satisfaction. Invalided in youth by accident while holding a commission in the artillery service, and doing much of his literary work under pain and in bed, he kept himself unsoured by misfortune, cheerful and genial in temper and conduct—a man vastly better than his creed.

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A Moral Tragedy Last week Stanford White, the well-known architect, was shot and instantly killed on the Madison Square Roof Garden, in New York City, while listening to a musical burlesque. Harry K. Thaw, of Pittsburg, his assailant, married a vaudeville actress, Evelyn Nesbit, and was the subject of much comment in the newspapers at the time. Thaw has been indicted for murder, is now imprisoned in the Tombs of New York City, and will probably be tried in September. Meanwhile the sensational press is seizing with avidity upon every vulgar phase of this tragedy. Mr. White was one of the most accomplished and influential architects the country has produced; his genius was largely that of the artist, and the fact that his buildings made good subjects for pictures indicated both their quality and their defect. The meaning of this latest flash of lightning from out the sky will be most impressively disclosed by the discovery of facts which will come later. There is nothing in common between the execution of the immutable

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law of righteousness and the mercenary use of the retributive processes of God by unworthy newspapers. Both the dead and the living are entitled to that silence which ought always to surround the approach to justice and in which the awful voice of outraged law speaks with final authority. When the facts are known, neither eminent service to art nor the passing fury of a weak man will postpone or defeat the judgment of morally sane people, which will be at once intelligent and relentlessly searching.

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Mr. Garrison's Retirement

The retirement of Mr. Wendell Phillips Garrison from the editorship of the "Nation," after forty-one years in its service, is a noteworthy incident in contemporary journalism. The continuity, character, and moral intensity which Mr. Garrison has put into his work were to be expected of a man who bears his name. To these must be added a high degree of intelligence, uncompromising devotion to the highest intellectual standards, and an impersonality of attitude curiously united to a very intense temperament. The "Nation" has had a place by itself among American journals. Its independence, outspokenness, and command of the resources of scholarship have long made it the special medium for the expression of the aspirations and hopes of the academic community, and the aims and devotion of a large body of men, young and old, who have been bent on the purification of American politics. Mr. Godkin gave its editorials the consistency of a fighting temperament, if not of a great aim. The journal itself has rendered great services, although never free from conspicuous and limiting faults. Its temper has been censorious rather than constructive; it has been far more given to blame than to praise, and it has often left the main line of attack in order to make forays for its own amusement. It has had the quality of a moral reformer rather than of a great moral leader. Its use of irony has been so constant that it has blunted a weapon which ought always to be kept at the keenest edge. And it has had the faculty of irritating its friends more than its enemies. But it has been always in all places unpurchasable. It could not be silenced even by the subtler forms of influence; even its love has manifested itself chiefly in chastening. Whatever the limitations of the "Nation," Mr. Garrison's career of forty-one years has been conspicuously stamped by courage, integrity, and devotion. Mr. Hammond Lamont, who succeeds to the editorship of the "Nation," has been for a number of years past the managing editor of the New York "Evening Post," and is a journalist of academic and business training. Mr. Paul Elmer More, who is to be associated with him in the editorial management of the "Nation," has been for some time past the literary editor of the New York "Evening Post," and is one of the most thoroughly equipped and capable critics of literature in the country, whose work always bears evidence of seriousness of spirit and adequacy of knowledge.

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Canadian Congregationalists and Presbyterians

An important step by the Congregational Union of Canada recently was the decision to receive the United Brethren denomination as the United Brethren Association of Congregational Churches. The movement had its inspiration from the one now in progress in this country, which it has outdistanced. The settlement will allow the United Brethren to retain their own superintendency, as well as the democratic itineracy already in vogue. Matters of education, missions, and benevolences are also at their own direction. Great satisfaction is expressed over the union, which is felt to be a significant step in the progress of religious affairs in Canada. Concerning the larger union now being considered by Presbyterians, Methodists, and Congregationalists, the Union recorded satisfaction with the work already done, but instructed its committee to urge a simpler statement of doctrine, which shall lay emphasis on Christian experience and conduct. Contemporaneous with the Congregational Union was the Presbyterian Assembly. Here also Church union formed one of the chief topics of discussion. Principal Patrick,

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of Winnipeg, presented a resolution expressing satisfaction with the progress already made by the three negotiating bodies—Congregationalists, Methodists, and Presbyterians—and recommending that the results be sent to the presbyteries and the congregations for consideration under the headings of Doctrine, The Ministry, Law, Polity, and Administration. The counter-proposal before the Assembly was for a cessation of negotiations along lines looking towards organic union; instead, that now the aim should be to bring the negotiating churches towards a federal or co-operative union; and, further, that the committee should continue its labors. Principal Patrick's motion prevailed by a vote of 156 to 8. A further motion to widen negotiations to include Anglicans and Baptists was carried by an almost unanimous consent. A notable feature of the Assembly was a deputation to convey greetings from the Anglican Church, headed by Bishop Williams, who delivered a message from that communion and spoke enthusiastically from its standpoint on the question of union, stating that there was a cordial readiness on the part of Episcopalians to share in the negotiations. Thus the debate took a larger range, and made the occasion historic in the annals of Canadian religious assemblies.

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Not a Labor War

The labor question appears to The Outlook the most important public question which now confronts the American people. Autocracy is banished from the State: government is for the people and by the people. It is banished from education: education is no longer for a favored few, but for the all, and we are beginning to adapt it to the needs of the all. It is banished from the Church: religious liberty is secure, and ecclesiastical authority is dependent, if not always on the will of the people for its initiation, always on the consent of the people for its continuance. But industry is still autocratic. The few control the industries and take the larger share of its profits. Industry will not be democratic until the many participate in the control of the industries and the profits are more equally divided than in an age in which incomes range from a dollar a day to forty thousand dollars a day. The problem of America is to transform its industrial system from one that is autocratic to one that is democratic.

The enemies of the democracy of industry are two: the plutocrats and the revolutionaries. The revolutionaries are the more dangerous of the two. For autocracy is better than anarchy, and is always, history shows, preferred to anarchy. And the effect if not the object of the revolutionaries is to produce anarchy. Of this truth the Western Federation of Miners affords a striking illustration.

On the 19th of May last The Outlook published an interpretative article on the Western Federation of Miners by Mr. William Hard, in which the writer enabled our readers to see that organization through its own eyes. In that article Mr. Hard thus defined the principles of the Federation:

> The United Mine Workers is interested mainly in the division of the proceeds of the present industrial system between itself and its partner, the employer. It wants to increase its own share of the proceeds, and it wants to reduce its partner's share. The Western Federation of Miners, on the other hand, is interested mainly in the elimination of the employer. It wants more wages, of course; but if it should succeed in establishing a scale of even a hundred dollars a day, it would still be bound by its principles to spurn the relaxing comforts of prosperity, and to nerve itself to a continuation of the struggle.

In this article Mr. Hard made clear the fact that the Western Federation of Miners is the foe, not only of the employers, but also of other labor unions. The latter are striving to bring about a partnership between employers and employed, with some share in the control of industry and a more equable share in its profits. The aim of the Western Federation of Miners is to destroy the present organization of labor altogether; what organization it would substitute is not clear, at least not to us. In the present issue a contributor enables our readers to see the Western Federation of Miners as it is seen by its opponents. Whether it is guilty of the crimes charged by this correspondent The

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Outlook does not undertake to determine. That question is involved in the pending trial of Moyer and Haywood for the murder of Governor Steunenberg; and The Outlook has neither the right nor the desire to anticipate the decision of the court.

But it is certain that the crimes reported by our correspondent have been committed; and it is certain that they are a natural result of certain of the utterances of prominent labor leaders in the Western mining States, if not of the avowed principles of the Federation. Take, for example, this utterance of the President of the American Flint Glass Workers' Union, Mr. Rose:

> If the capitalistic class, as it is represented in Idaho and Montana, the seat of the Lawson-Heinze copper war, persists in its attempt to send Haywood and Moyer to the gallows, I, for one, am in favor of loading ourselves with dynamite, proceeding to Boise City, and blowing that jail to smithereens; and, for that matter, removing anything which stands between justice and the workingman.

Or this utterance of Eugene V. Debs, the National spokesman of the revolutionaries:

> If they attempt to murder Moyer and Haywood, and their brothers, a million revolutionaries, at least, will meet them with guns. . . . Get ready, comrades, for action. No other course is left to the working class. The courts are closed to us, except to pronounce our doom. To enter these courts is simply to be mulcted of our meager means and bound hand and foot; to have our eyes plucked out by the vultures that fatten upon our misery.

Moyer and Haywood are entitled to an absolutely fair trial, and to acquittal if they are innocent, whatever may be their record in the past. But if they are proved guilty, society is entitled to their condign punishment, whatever threats the revolutionaries may utter. It is true that there are unscrupulous and lawless corporations of great wealth in the United States, and nowhere corporations more unscrupulous and more lawless than some of those in the Rocky Mountain region. It is true that the failure to pass the eight-hour law which the Legislature was elected to pass, the deportation of union miners without even the pretense of a trial, the looting of the miners' co-operative store by an anti-union mob, may well have provoked the miners to anger. But nothing can justify such crimes as those described on another page by our correspondent.

To call this making war on society is to honor it too much. The assassination of Governor Steunenberg and the massacre of the non-union miners at Independence Station are no more war than the shooting of Stanford White by Harry K. Thaw was a duel. "War," says Charles Sumner, "is a public armed contest between nations, under the sanction of international law, to establish justice between them." Civil war is a similar contest between armed organizations in the nation. War is always subject to the laws of war. Among these laws are such as these: the warring party must give notice of the war, accept its hazards, and abide by its issue; in war wounding and mutilation of prisoners, attack upon unarmed combatants, bombarding of an unprotected town, the use of poison and other secret methods of assassination, are all forbidden. Whoever were guilty of the crimes described by our correspondent paid no attention to these rules of civilized warfare. They did not declare war; they did not take any of the hazards of war; they attacked the unarmed and the unprotected; and when they had done it, like the cowards that they were, they ran away. This is not war; it is assassination. And they who are guilty of it are the worst enemies to the cause of industrial democracy—far more dangerous and effective enemies than are the plutocrats.

We repeat that we express no opinion respecting the guilt or innocence of Messrs. Moyer and Haywood, and none respecting the responsibility of the Western Federation of Miners for the crimes which have been committed apparently on their behalf. But we also repeat what we said in the same issue in which we published Mr. Hard's admirable exposition of the principles of the Western Federation of Miners as avowed by themselves: "The killing of the ex-Governor of Idaho was a cruel and cowardly murder; and it was equally cruel and cowardly whether he was the victim of private revenge or of a secret tribunal. And if the murderer can be discovered, he should be held as a murderer, con-

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victed as a murderer, and hanged as a murderer, in equal disregard of appeals for clemency because he acted for a secret order and of threats of vengeance because the secret order is powerful and vengeful."

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The Sunday Question

I would be glad to have you give your readers an expression of opinion as to the right and proper observance of the Sabbath for the average American citizen who is occupied pretty steadily six days in the week—not in piling up a big fortune, but in earning a living and enough more to educate his children and to keep himself from becoming dependent on others when he is incapacitated for work. We are coming to the season when thousands of our people go to mountain, lake, and shore for a longer or shorter stay; their regular habits are broken into, and the temptation to neglect church services and indulge in bathing, boating, fishing, bicycling, golf, tennis, automobiling, etc., on Sunday is very strong. And as it is easier to acquire the lax Sunday-observance habit than the strict Sunday-observance habit, a part of those who grow lax during their summer outing remain so permanently. Thus we see a growing laxity in Sunday observance—the contrast to-day with ten or twelve years ago is very marked. If, as is claimed by strict Sabbatarians, the Christian Sabbath has been one of the strongest bulwarks of our American liberties, and largely responsible for our Nation's intelligent development and prosperity, then it becomes a serious question for Christian citizens to consider to what extent they ought and may be able, by precept and example, to resist the tendency to lax Sunday observance.

INQUIRER.

This letter suggests two reflections.

I. The question of Sunday observance cannot be considered apart from the question of the true end of life. A man enters the American race eager, if not to distance, at least to keep pace with, his competitors. His doctor tells him he ought to take exercise; he replies, I have no time. His wife begs him to take his meals more leisurely; he replies, I have no time. His children clamor for more of their father at home and an occasional day off; he replies, I have no time. His work spills over into Sunday, or he works so hard and rests so little through the week that he has no inclination for a service at church or any forth-giving fellowship at home; to the whispered rebukes of his conscience he replies, I have no time.

What does this "I have no time" mean? It means that he is so busy making a fortune or earning a living that he has no time and little inclination for the higher life—for culture, worship, home.

What is the remedy? Not rules prescribing hours for sleep, or meals, or children, or worship. Such rules are better than nothing. But the real remedy is a radical change in the point of view. Life is the end of life. To live purely, nobly, to cultivate the mind and develop the affections, to reverence God, love our fellows, make sacred our home, inspire and instruct our children—this is what we are on earth for. This involves giving to the children a roof for shelter, food to eat, clothes to wear; but this is only the beginning. It also involves giving to them, and giving to society, something more and higher than shelter, food, and clothes. Not until a man lives that he may himself reverence God and love his fellows, and that he may inspire them with reverence and love—not until this is the end of his life, and the material conditions take their proper second place in his estimation, is he prepared to consider the Sabbath question. Not till then can he realize that the Sabbath is a privilege, not a prohibition; not till then can he realize that the spirit of the Fourth Commandment is this—For one day in seven you are released from the law, In the sweat of thy brow shalt thou earn thy daily bread; for one day in seven the cherubim sheathe the flaming sword, and we are invited out of the wilderness with its thorns and thistles, to return to Eden, where labor is not toil, and the sighing is turned to song.

II. When one has this conception, as our correspondent seems to have, the question still remains, How shall one use this day of privilege to the best advantage, for himself, for his family, and for society?

Not by attempting to go back to the Puritan idea as it is expressed in the Westminster Confession of Faith; not by a resolve to be "taken up the whole time in the public and private exercises of worship, and in the duties of necessity

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and mercy." Any such continuous concentration of the mind upon one theme is equally destructive of rest and of spiritual culture. It is psychologically impossible; and is inconsistent alike with the teaching of Scripture, with reason, and with experience.

Not by turning the day into one of mere merrymaking and junketing, a day of frolic and games; not by consecrating it to golf in the morning and automobiling in the afternoon; not by converting it into a weekly composite of Thanksgiving Day and Fourth of July. This is not to give either body or mind the best rest; it is not to give the life any real inspiration; and it is generally to purchase a more than doubtful pleasure by depriving one of needed rest and refreshment.

Make it first of all a day of rest. Escape from the cares and worries of life. Lay aside the current problems. If you take a Sunday paper, do not read it until evening. At least leave politics and the markets till Monday. So live on Sunday as to prepare yourself to take up the week's work on Monday with a fresh mind.

Make it a home day. Give it to the wife and the children. Remember that you cannot make it sacred to them unless you make it dear to them. "Call the Sabbath a delight," says Isaiah. He who would make the Sabbath sacred to his children must know how to make it a delight to them.

Turn the thoughts part of the time to public and private exercises of worship. If possible, do this with others in a church service. This is sometimes impossible. Sometimes there is no church accessible. Sometimes there is no church that can be made inspirational, attractive, or even more than barely endurable. Even when the church service is barren and inadequate, rest, inspiration, and joy may often be found in the endeavor by one's presence and co-operation to improve it. And there is always possible the church in the home. Where the service of song is possible, it fuses the hearts of the family in one experience by uniting their voices in one voice.

Further than this one cannot prescribe for another. We certainly can give no Sabbath rules. We cannot say that golf is right and tennis is wrong, or that riding is right and boating is wrong. One may make nature a sacred temple; one may make the church a secular meeting-place for the performance of an irksome duty. The church choir may be a burden; the bird choir may be an inspiration. Yet he who has human sympathies should find his spirit uplifted by sharing his penitences and his aspirations with others for an hour. If one has no such sympathies, we cannot advise him. A worship which is unpleasing to the worshiper cannot well be pleasing to God. We can only say that the Sabbath is ill spent if it sends us back to our weekly work irritated, wearied, reluctant; and the Sabbath is well spent if it sends us back refreshed in body, mind, and spirit, to take up a round of daily duties and unselfish service with a new inspiration of courage, hope, and patience.

The best of rules are a poor substitute for the right spirit; and we cannot in any way so well interpret that spirit as by quoting George Herbert's interpretation:

"O Day most calm, most bright,
The fruit of this, the next world's bud,
The indorsement of supreme delight,
Writ by a Friend, and with his blood;
The couch of time, care's balm and bay!
The week were dark, but for thy light!
Thy torch doth show the way."

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One Way to Do It

The publication of "Everyman's Library," with Mr. Ernest Rhys as editor-in-chief, is worthy of comment as not only a very comprehensive but a very intelligent effort to bring good books within reach of all readers and to popularize good literature in the only way in which it can be popularized. The proposal to publish one hundred volumes a year seems at first glance somewhat too enterprising; but when one recalls the wealth of material to be drawn upon and the multitude of people who want good books and do not know where to find them nor how to buy them, the plan becomes entirely rational. In this case the editor, who is assisted by a group of

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assistant editors of unusual qualifications from the standpoint of literary knowledge and taste, has not attempted to impose his personal likings on his readers. He has been catholic enough to make a really representative list of books which should include, not only essayists of the rank of Bacon, Emerson, Coleridge, and Lamb, biographers of the rank of Boswell and Lockhart, but novelists of the standing of Jane Austen, Scott, George Eliot, Charles Kingsley, Lytton, Trollope, Reade, and Balzac; a generous selection of historians; readable books of theological thinkers as old as Hugh Latimer and as new as Robertson; poetry of the quality of Tennyson's, Browning's, and Coleridge's; science and romance; books for young readers from Lamb, Andersen, Hawthorne, and others; and Marcus Aurelius. This is a sound collection made on large lines and aimed to serve that vast public of readers who are sometimes contemptuously spoken of by those who regard themselves as custodians of the traditions of art in literature, but who in the long run have perhaps a wiser judgment of what is permanently and ultimately to be preserved than their scorners. Such books as those which are to go into "Everyman's Library," properly made, with due regard to eyesight and to the dignity of the substance of the book, and with careful consideration of the fact that if a book is to go everywhere it must be sold at a very small price, ought to be the text-books for the best kind of universal education; and if they are properly circulated one may hope for the time when they will lie on the newsstands in the places now filled by catchpenny stories of the day, and by the sensational newspapers which have discovered that the chief interest of men and women is in other men and women and are plying the trade of the story-teller in a new guise in the most demoralizing form.

Mr. Lowell says somewhere that Americans are waking up to the fact that the Government cannot be conducted by declamation. It is quite certain that there are a great many evils that cannot be cured by declamation, and one of them is the habit of reading cheap stories and cheaper newspapers. The readers into whose hands the sensational journals fall, and who befuddle their brains by the reading of cheap books, cannot be condemned without a hearing, nor are their habits to be corrected by indiscriminate denunciation. As regards the critical thunderbolts which are hurled at them from time to time, they are very much in the position of those absent church members who are lectured by proxy for their failure to attend divine worship. They never hear the reproaches which are heaped upon them by sorrowful or irate clergy; it is the faithful attendants who get the scolding. It is the people who read good books and good newspapers who are soundly beaten from time to time on account of the poor books and the cheap newspapers.

The only way in which the habit of reading vulgar books can be overcome is by carrying something better to the very doors of those who make the publication of such books and newspapers profitable. The sensational journal cares nothing for the comments of its contemporaries; its only interest is in securing readers. It has no standards, no tastes, no affiliations, no sense of responsibility. It is a business enterprise, the sole aim of which is to secure customers. It has no conscience to be appealed to, no capacity for shame, no sensitiveness to ridicule; the only way to strike it is to strike it through its purchasers. The bad book must be replaced by the good book, and the cheap newspaper by the newspaper that is worth while. But the good book must be carefully selected; it must not only be good, it must be interesting. It must satisfy the same quality that the bad books satisfy. The human element in it must be foremost; it must tell a story or teach a truth with abundant illustration, or come in a form which makes it a welcome guest. For this reason a carefully made up library of the best writings selected for readers of all classes is something to be thankful for. Every good book is a tract as well as a piece of literature; it has a redemptive mission to perform; it is a saving grace for those who have fallen intellectually; it is a gospel for those who are in outer darkness.

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The Spectator

Up among the hills of the Mohawk Valley, six hours from New York, on a little branch railway with depot four miles from the town, the Spectator found a sleepy village bearing many a mark of the typical primitive community. At the station was a rickety spring-wagon—a "democrat," as the driver called it—in the rear of which were two suspicious-looking barrels.

"The caucuses was yesterday," the driver explained, sheepishly, "and I had to bring over some freight."

He took his place on one of the barrels, giving us the spring seat, and gossiped volubly of the events in the vicinity. "Had a warm time at the election," he volunteered. "Th' machine has run things long enough in th' town, an' we downed 'em—but it took mighty hard work."

"Many votes?" queried the Spectator.

"Well, I should say so—most there ever was, except when Roosevelt was runnin'. Cast a hundred and seven altogether." He could not have been more elated had they decided the fate of a nation. Do our own big affairs seem so trivial to the outside world?

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"No, things ain't changed much in twenty-five years," the charioteer admitted. "But the town is boomin' now. Built two new houses last year and maybe will have another. It's about th' best place I ever saw for business. Four stores in the town—and a blacksmith shop. Yes, I've traveled a lot. Been all through the Western States. How far? Well, I went to Buffalo and Cincinnati once—but I like it here better—more comfort, somehow."

A stroke of the whip hurried the horses into a shambling trot. The wheels of the wagon slid over stones and sank into muddy ruts. As the weary team tugged and struggled up the hills, the driver retailed his family history. Talk of Western friendliness—here was a chance New Yorker who fairly unbosomed himself to entire strangers.

❀

"How old is that house?"

"Oh, a hundred years, I guess. Probably more. No, never painted. It stands it all right in this climate. Pretty expensive painting houses, and ain't necessary. We make real lumber up here—good stuff all th' way through. But it is getting scarce; th' big trees are about gone, an' we'll have to ship it pretty soon." This with a sigh for the passing resources of a once forest-covered section, now marked only here and there with birch, basswood, or maples fit for the lumber-mill.

❀

Eight men, warned by the bells on the horses, awaited us at the "tavern," their interest divided between the "freight" and the afternoon papers. It was the one exciting event of the day, the coming of the stage over the winding road and the touch of the outside world that it brought. Then along a yet rougher path, past pine and cedar woods, until the farm-house was reached. The grove of great maples in front of the dwelling bore on every tree a sap-bucket, gathering the sweetness that goes into making real maple syrup—none of the brown-sugar concoctions for the people of that section. They are close to nature. They make fences of the stones gathered off the fields, and houses of the lumber sawed in their own sawmills from trees cut on their own woodlands.

A touch of quaintness is in it all. Most of the houses have been standing eighty to one hundred years, and the portals are a delight to the seeker for the pure colonial. The woodwork is not sawed by machinery, but every curl and ornament is the patient handiwork of a man with mallet and chisel. Not perfect is it, but bearing marks of sincerity and good faith never carried by the factory-turned devices of to-day.

❀

The Spectator remembered that in the parlor twenty-five years ago had been some wax flowers and wax fruit; that black horsehair-covered furniture was set stiffly around the darkened room, never to be used except on occasion of a wedding or a funeral. All are yet in their places—seemingly the same as a quarter-century before. The pictures yet hang from glass-topped nails by

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heavy red silk cords; Washington still crosses the Delaware and Napoleon still stands at St. Helena in the highly colored prints, while ancestors of many generations look down in stern disapproval of modern frivolity as expressed in a glaring red plush morris chair presented as a token of esteem by "father's" Sunday-school class. In the guest chamber are the same four-poster, the same bottomless feather bed—and the same chill air. Has the room been used since the other visit?

❀

But those are the reminders of the older generation. In the living-room and kitchen are modern conveniences, most of them giving evidence of having been purchased through a mail-order catalogue. A phonograph entertains the family on long winter evenings. "We are going to have a telephone next month," proudly asserts the son. "I just made pa get it." That is the entering wedge, the modern touch of a new life—after it will come many things to regenerate the old-time methods. The Spectator remembered that it had once been a hop-growing section, but saw no signs of this now. "We don't raise hops any more," was the explanation. "The West raises 'em too cheap for us, and we quit it. Same with wheat and corn. We raise cattle and sell milk mostly. The cheese factories do well, and potatoes pay us a good profit, but not much else does. Land is worth about forty dollars an acre—some of it less. The folks like it here and don't care to sell."

"Where do the young folks go—out West?"

"No, not often. The factories take most of them. All down the valley to New York are factory towns, and as soon as a young man wants to leave the farm he goes into them. The girls do the same, but mostly as cheaper hands. The town has less people than it had twenty-five years ago just on that account. One boy or girl stays home to look after the old folks and the farm; the others go. That is why we don't change much. No, I've never been to New York, but I expect to some time. My son was there once and he says it's great." Seventy-two years the speaker had lived on his farm—and had never painted either barn or house!

❀

"Next year it will be different," went on the philosopher. "You see, we have been livin' pretty quiet up here, off the railroad and away from things so. When the young folks go away, they don't come back, and that leaves us pretty much as we have been. Now, my son is thirty years old, got a wife and two children—but he was never out of the county only once. That was when he went to the Pan-American show on his weddin' trip. We are goin' to have a telephone and then the trolley—we can go easier and talk to others without coming down town to th' tavern. But mostly it will make it easier for others to come to us. The city folks will like to spend summers here when they can get back and forth every hour instead of once a day. They will buy some of the old farms and fix 'em up; then the folks here will fix up, an' you'll find a change in things. The country is good enough," with a sweep of the rugged hand toward the marvelous picture of hill and vale, cedar groves and quaint farm-houses, rambling stone and rail fences and aimlessly winding roads—then far on the horizon the faint tone of black that marked the factories' sky. It is indeed good enough—a delight to the nature-lover, a restful, solacing presentment of unending charm.

❀

The Sleepy Hollows and the Auburns of the vale will not always slumber. They are on the verge of awaking, and the touch of modern life expressed in the swaying motor-car and the singing telephone wire is the fairy that is to bring about the change. Already are seen the intimations of a new day and of a transformation that is to make the remoter places of the Atlantic States one with the centers of business activity in the best and broadest sense. When the Spectator next visits his friends of the hills, he firmly expects to step from an electric car to an automobile, to be whisked to a home with painted exterior and generous porch, and to a parlor thrown open to all the family all the time—which will mean complete regeneration, the dawn of a new era.

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THE WESTERN FEDERATION OF MINERS

In the issue of May 19 last The Outlook published an article by Mr. William Hard on the Western Federation of Miners, in which, as an interpreter, he explained their principles as avowed by themselves. The article was accompanied by an editorial saying that the object in publishing Mr. Hard's paper was to enable readers to see this organization as they saw themselves, and at the same time expressing vigorous condemnation of certain of those principles. We give to our readers herewith an article which will enable them to see the Western Federation of Miners as they are seen by their opponents. The article is not signed because the writer believes that his life would be imperiled if his name were known, but it comes to us with such indorsement as to justify us in assuring our readers of the sincerity of the writer, of his opportunities for acquaintance with the facts, and of the representative character of his convictions. We comment editorially on this article elsewhere.—THE EDITORS.

THE Western Federation was organized in Butte, Montana, in 1893, the year succeeding the dynamiting and destruction of the Frisco Mill at Wardner, Idaho, and the calling in of Federal troops, which occupied that Territory for many months. Peter Breen, a prominent leader, in a speech at Butte on July 11, 1893, two months after the organization started, said that this was the happiest moment of his life, and that he was at all times willing to be classed as one of the dynamiters of the Cœur d'Alene.

A few months later, in commenting on the shooting to death, in broad daylight, by forty Federation miners, with rifles and shotguns, of John Kneebone, who had been driven from the country and had returned, the "Silver Star," the organ of the Federation, said that the unions could not be held responsible for this murder because the Gem mine owners had not discharged "scabs," as had been requested by the unions. The Grand Jury summoned to investigate this case reported that the officials were so in sympathy with the criminals that convictions could not be had, and that no witnesses could be found to testify for fear of deportation or death.

The following year non-union men were driven from the Cœur d'Alene in groups by armed and masked Federation men, and in no instance did arrests follow. How far in this early day this policy met with official approval is to be inferred from the following extract from a speech of Edward Boyce, President of the Federation, delivered at Salt Lake on May 8, 1897. He said: "Every union should have a rifle club. I strongly advise you to provide every member with the latest improved rifle, which can be obtained from the factory at a nominal price." This appeal met with a prompt response, for five days later, on May 13, Federation men entered the building at Mullan, Idaho, where the arms and ammunition of the State militia were stored, and forty-six rifles and ten thousand cartridges were stolen. No arrests followed. The County Commissioners of the county (Federation sympathizers) petitioned the Governor to disband the militia companies because they were "a continuous menace to the peace and good order of the county." Shortly afterward a foreman of the Helena-Frisco mill, who had offended the Federation, was taken from his bed by masked men and murdered. No arrests followed.

On April 29, 1899, a thousand Federation men, armed with rifles and other firearms, forcibly stole a Northern Pacific train, proceeded to the great mill of the Bunker Hill-Sullivan Mining Company, killed and wounded several non-union men employed there, placed three thousand pounds of dynamite in the mill, and blew it up. The Federation Sheriff of the county accompanied this mob. The "Idaho Tribune," the organ of the

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Western Federation, reported this affair as follows:

> The train reached Wardner at one o'clock, and the work of clearing the country of all opposition was begun. A detachment of union miners, armed with Winchester rifles, was dispatched to the mountainside beyond the mill, and the work of placing under the mill three thousand pounds of dynamite, taken from the magazine of the Frisco mine, was commenced. All the details were managed with the discipline and precision of a perfectly trained military organization. . . . Sixty armed scabs in the employ of the Bunker Hill Company offered the only resistance, and they gave expression to the most pitiable and lamentable cowardice. Only a few desultory shots from the miners were necessary to send them fleeing over the mountains.

Governor Steunenberg, for whose assassination with dynamite Moyer and Haywood, President and Secretary of the Western Federation, are now charged as accomplices, called for Federal troops. Martial law continued for six months, and the troops were not withdrawn for a year.

In May, 1895, a local union of the Western Federation was established at Leadville. Within a year a strike was called, following a dispute over wages. On July 10 a consignment of Marlin rifles, about five hundred in number, arrived at the store of Charles McHugh and quickly disappeared. On June 24 an executive committee was appointed by the union to manage and conduct the strike. About June 30 this committee ordered a hundred rifles and paid for them about July 11 out of moneys on deposit in the Carbonate Bank. "Regulators," armed with revolvers, moved about through Leadville, intimidating and assaulting and abusing non-union men. Five captains of these "Regulators" were deputy sheriffs under appointment by the Sheriff of Lake County. On September 21 a mob of men attacked the Coronado mine, within the city limits, using dynamite bombs and firearms. The mine buildings were burned, and Jerry O'Keefe, of the City Fire Department, was killed while holding a nozzle to extinguish the flames.

On March 13, 1899, striking Federation miners at Lake City, Colorado, following the Cœur d'Alene example, broke into the State Armory and robbed it of fifty Springfield rifles and a thousand rounds of ammunition. Again there were no arrests.

In February, 1901, Vincent St. John became President of the Telluride Miners' Union, a local union of the Western Federation at Telluride, Colorado. On May 1 a strike was declared against the Smuggler-Union Mining Company. Non-union miners to the number of two hundred were at work on July 3, when at daybreak two hundred and fifty Federation miners, again armed with rifles and other firearms, took position near the exit from the mine, and when the night shift came off began shooting into the building. Two men were killed, and the mine superintendent and one shift boss were crippled for life. A parley followed, in which President St. John represented the rioters. It was agreed finally that the non-union men should go to Telluride unmolested. After the surrender and disarming of these men, to the number of eighty-three, they were surrounded and subjected to the most infamous abuse. They were kicked and beaten, and many of them forced to take off their shoes and stockings and throw them away. They were then lined up and forced to march over the rugged mountain trail and out of the district. Their assailants followed, beating the footsore stragglers, and during the tramp an old and respected citizen of Telluride was wantonly shot through both arms and crippled for life. On November 9, 1902, Manager Arthur L. Collins, of this mine, was shot by his fireside with buckshot fired through the window. Vincent St. John was indicted with others for this crime, and, since the arrest of Moyer, Haywood, and Pettibone for complicity in the murder of ex-Governor Steunenberg, has been apprehended in Idaho, where he was living under an assumed name and had again become President of the local miners' union of the Western Federation.

Some officials of the Western Federation pretended to be indignant at these crimes; and yet it was discovered that two hundred and fifty rifles and fifty thousand cartridges were ordered by the union, on union letter-head, and paid for by a draft signed by President Vin-

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cent St. John, who was conducting the strike under the direction of Federation officials. Nowhere will be found an instance where any man has ever been expelled or suspended from membership in the Federation for this act or any other similar act; and how is it conceivable that Vincent St. John's course was not approved by the Federation, since he shortly after was again at the head of a local union, although a fugitive from justice and under indictment for murder?

To pass over the strike in Cripple Creek in 1894, conducted by the Western Federation, which surpassed any previous record in its catalogue of crime, there comes again, beginning with 1899, in Cripple Creek, a series of assaults, dynamiting, and murders, which affrights humanity. These crimes, where names, dates, and all attending circumstances can be submitted, are numbered by scores and scores. The victims were uniformly men who were giving or had given offense to the Federation. The woman in the home was notified that if the husband persisted in whatever course he might be following, opposed to the Federation, some day he would not come home. Dynamite was hung by strings down chimneys in a home where a lesson was to be taught to a man prominent in prosecuting members of this organization for stealing ore, and his home demolished by the explosion which followed the fire started by his wife in preparation for supper. The influence of these notices and of these methods, which exhausted every ingenuity in the way of intimidation, naturally produced a reign of terror so universally felt by every individual of the community that he who had knowledge of the guilt of any member of this Federation was induced to remain quiet in order to secure protection for himself and his family. One of the notices posted generally over the district, which Mr. Hard has in some way omitted, and which does not conform to what he finds in the philosophy of this organization on the open shop, reads as follows:

> Hence take notice: That on and after September 15th, any one working in or around the mines, mills, or power plants of the Cripple Creek District, who cannot show a card of membership in good standing of some local union of the Western Federation of Miners, will be considered a scab, an enemy to us, himself, and to the community at large, and *will be treated as such.*
>
> By Order of the Cripple Creek Executive Board of the Western Federation of Miners.
>
> JOHN CURRY, President.

Walter Wellman, the well-known newspaper writer, who made a thorough and exhaustive examination of the conditions surrounding the strike in Cripple Creek, referring to the notice above quoted and to the explosion of June 6, 1904, at Independence Station, when thirteen were killed and a large number of others maimed and wounded, says:

> Tacked upon a telephone pole, within a stone's throw of the ruined station at Independence (I was about to say within reach of one of the flying legs or arms of the victims of that awful crime), I saw a rain-beaten but still decipherable poster reading as follows: [Here follows the notice above set forth.]
>
> The badly shattered railway station near by stood as grim evidence of what was meant by "will be treated as such."

On the afternoon of this awful crime shots were fired from the union headquarters at Victor into a crowd of citizens gathered in mass-meeting to express their horror of the deed of the early morning, and two men were killed. The local militia company was called out, and, after the exchange of many shots, forced the surrender from this hall of some forty Federation men, and in the hall captured a large number of rifles and other firearms. Significantly enough, within this hall and in the desk of the secretary of this union was found a photograph of a group of miners, some of whom had been murdered and some of whom had been forced from the district. A cross stood against the murdered and the absent, clearly indicating that the score was settled so far as these individuals were concerned. Two of the murdered men were shortly before killed by a bomb placed in the shaft of the Vindicator mine, which was automatically exploded by a pistol-ball fired into it as the cage passed. Can any sane man escape the logic applied by Mr. Lincoln in one of the debates with Douglas, when he referred to Pierce, Taney, Buchanan, and Douglas as workmen who had

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produced timbers which, when brought together, exactly formed a framework, and concluding that in such case it was impossible not to believe that "all understood one another from the beginning and all worked upon a common plan"?

From the foregoing it would seem to be clear enough why evidence has been almost impossible to secure for the conviction of the perpetrators of this interminable series of crimes against life, property, and personal liberty. It is to be noted in addition that this organization did not stop with the violences already enumerated as part of its system of defense against the consequences of its course, but in addition systematically aimed to control all local civil officers. At the tenth annual Convention, held in 1902, the following declaration was adopted:

> We, the tenth annual Convention of the Western Federation of Miners, do declare for a policy of independent political action, and do advise and recommend the adoption of the platform of the Socialist party of America by the locals of the Federation. . . .

This programme had practically been in operation from the beginning. The avowed aim and practice of the Federation have been to enter the local political field and secure control of all officers affecting the execution of the law. At their tenth, eleventh, and twelfth annual Conventions they resolved, among other things, to take measures "for securing the overthrow of the present iniquitous system of government." As an instance of the thoroughness with which they dominate a local field, the list of civil officers in the Cripple Creek District, the scene of their last activity, shows not a single officer outside of membership in the Western Federation of Miners authorized to make arrests, serve writs, or institute any other legal process. This, moreover, is entirely in keeping with the fundamental law of the organization. Paragraph 6 of the preamble to the Constitution of the Federation is as follows:

> To prevent by law any mine owner, mining company, or corporation, or the agents thereof, from employing detectives or armed forces, and to provide that only the lawfully elected or appointed officers of the county, State, or province, who shall be bona-fide citizens thereof, shall act in any capacity in the enforcement of the law.

This provision is significant in that it seems to anticipate the necessity for detectives and to fear their work, and is a covert declaration against the use of the militia. As an example of the practical working of this condition, the following is characteristic:

J. T. Hawkins, a young Englishman of an independent character, was Justice of the Peace in Teller County in an outlying precinct. Some Federation members were fined by him for carrying concealed weapons. At midday, after he had left his court-room, he was assaulted by two Federation men, one of whom was an officer of the local union, and barely escaped with his life after being knocked senseless and terribly beaten with guns in the hands of these men. The Federation official who took part in his beating was arrested for it, but the Sheriff, who was himself a member of the Federation, the next day released him, saying that he "did not wish to offend a whole raft of people." The man who was liberated is still a fugitive from justice. This act was both a warning and a punishment. This instance is one of scores of instances where, because of fear of the consequences, or because of direct sympathy on the part of law officers with lawless acts, no convictions, often no arrests even, were secured in crimes of every degree of hideousness.

The Federation as an organization is an outlaw with the avowed purpose of destroying existing government. It is an example of an organization which may have been originally formed for an honest purpose, but which has fallen under the complete domination of men who are essentially Anarchists. Secretary Haywood, the dominating spirit of the organization, has said, in characteristic style, that "the nation is only strong whose yeomanry bask in the sunlight of liberty that is free from the noxious effluvia of an atmosphere that breeds in the human heart the germs of murder." He referred to the present industrial situation, and whether that situation has bred those germs in his heart is now the subject of judicial investigation.

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No just appreciation of the situation which confronted the men in the mining districts of the West is possible without a recognition of the fact that in the contests which have occurred they have fought for personal and business freedom in a sense which no other men have during this generation. The contest was not in any large measure industrial. It was for freedom of speech and of the press; for the protection of "the present system of government." It was not against workmen striving for just recognition, but against armed bodies standing in open defiance of constituted authority, with an avowed purpose of "overthrowing the present iniquitous system." It is not proposed to justify everything that has been done in the effort to destroy the power of such an organization and drive out the terrorism that brooded over the lives of women and children and made strong men tremble. These were endured until the dominating characteristic of American men asserted itself.

The people of the West regret that their Eastern friends have not, as a rule, taken the time to ascertain the facts in this matter, but, as is perhaps natural, have been influenced by "sympathetic" narratives pretending to deal with the situation as a "philosophical agitation" instead of a bloody crusade. And while the regret is genuine, there is a grim resolve to bear the criticisms of those who little understand conditions, rather than to endure again the reign of anarchy and fear. The true story of the Federation has been told in connection with the assassination of Governor Steunenberg. That it has not been given to the public is due to the action of the accused officials in securing a delay of their trial. The people who have opposed that organization await with confidence the verdict of the country when the truth is known.

AN ASCENT OF VESUVIUS[1]

BY GEORGE KENNAN

PRIOR to the recent eruption it was almost as easy to get to the summit-crater of Vesuvius as to go in an express elevator to the top of the Flatiron Building in New York. The enterprising tourist agency of Cook & Son had built an electric road up the western face of the mountain from Pugliano to a point half a mile beyond the observatory, and had then extended it, by means of a wire cable tram or lift, up the steeper part of the cone, to a station distant only a few hundred feet from the crater's edge. From this upper station to the top there were good paths, and if one did not feel equal to a walk of five or ten minutes, one might be carried to the summit by a couple of guides in an easy chair. An ascent of the volcano, therefore, might be safely and comfortably made even by an invalid or a cripple. If you wished to go up, all that you had to do was to buy one of Cook's excursion tickets and put yourself in the hands of a uniformed conductor. The electric road, the cable lift, and the summit guides would "do the rest," and two hours after leaving Naples you might be looking down into the crater without having walked even so much as fifty yards. The recent eruption, however, has changed all this. On the night of the 6th of April the upper station of the cable lift was set on fire by red-hot stones and burned to the ground; and a day or two later the lower station, the whole of the cable tram, and a part of the electric road were so completely buried or swept away by avalanches of dust and slag that it is impossible now even to ascertain where they were. All paths, of course, were obliterated, and the slope of the mountain on the Naples side, as far down as the observatory, was covered with a fresh deposit of dust, lapilli, and slag to an average depth of six or eight feet. There are now no roads, no trams, and no paths on the upper half of the cone. Under these changed conditions an ascent to the crater involves a good

[1] A previous article by Mr. Kennan on this subject appeared in The Outlook of June 23, 1906.

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deal of hard work, and if you propose to undertake it you must be prepared to climb for a distance of perhaps two thousand feet up a steep slope, where your leg will sink half-way to the knee at every step, and where backward slides will increase by at least fifty per cent. the distance that you must cover.

When I went to the office of Cook & Son, introduced myself as a representative of The Outlook, and made inquiries with regard to the possibility of reaching the crater, the manager, Mr. Faerber, looked at me askance. "Newspaper men haven't helped our business much," he said, dryly. "They have exaggerated everything so that the people are now afraid to go up to the crater, or even to the observatory. They think it's too dangerous." I told him that I was not a "yellow" journalist; that I had climbed a much worse and more dangerous volcano than Vesuvius; and that if he would give me information and facilities I would guarantee not to scare tourists away with stories of hardship and peril. On the contrary, I would paint the ascent in such attractive colors as to double his Vesuvian business in a week. He then showed me a lot of photographs that he had himself taken between the observatory and the crater after the eruption, and told me that getting to the summit would not involve any real difficulty or danger. We might get tired, but there was a "Cook" hotel near the observatory, where, if we chose, we could bathe, change our dress, and spend the night, and thus avoid the risk of taking cold by riding back to Naples while we were tired, wet, and overheated. This seemed very satisfactory, and we arranged to go up, with a guide of our own, on the following day.

Fortune favored us in the matter of weather, and we left our hotel and drove to the station of the Circumvesuvian Railway on one of the most beautiful May mornings that ever dawned over Italy. The gardens and vineyards in the suburbs of the city were as fresh and green as if they had never been pelted with lapilli or powdered with dust; and when we got up on the flanks of the volcano, we found ourselves in a region where ripe oranges glowed amid dark-green foliage under the mossy walls of old churches or monasteries, and where the grassy banks by the roadside were so covered with lupines, poppies, and wild chrysanthemums that they seemed, as we swiftly passed, to be incrusted with a blurred but vivid enamel of white, scarlet, and gold.

At Pugliano, where the ascent of the volcano begins, we alighted from the circumvesuvian train, got into an omnibus, and rode slowly up the mountain in the direction of Cook's electric tram, a string band of six bareheaded Italian musicians following us on foot and playing "Over the Summer Sea" as they walked. Ascending an active volcano to an accompaniment of operatic music seemed theatrical and incongruous enough; but climbing a mountain to the tune of "Over the Summer Sea" was as preposterous as exploring an abandoned coal mine with the warbling yodel of an Alpine herdsman. Such, however, is Italy—on the lines of Cook's tours. One of these days, if Vesuvius remains quiescent, Cook will have lunch-tables all around the edge of the crater, and a string band will play there every afternoon from four to six. One may hope, however, that the musicians will adapt their music to the environment, and not play "The Harbor Bar is Moaning" or "Larboard Watch, Ahoy!" when a deep-toned rumble comes up from below, or a cloud of steam is thrown out of the crater by a subterranean explosion.

The electric tram from Pugliano to the observatory runs over ash-fields and ancient lava-beds to a height of two thousand feet, and is a very creditable piece of engineering work. The inclination is not so sharp as that of the wire-cable tram which before the eruption carried passengers up the last third of the cone; but there is one fifty per cent. grade, and the whole ascent is fairly steep. The volcano observatory, which is situated near the present terminus of the road, occupies a comparatively safe position, about a mile and a half from the crater, on a buttress or shoulder of the mountain known as San Salvatore. On the sides of this buttress there were formerly two deep gorges or valleys called the Fosso Vetrana and the Fosso Grande,

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but both have been nearly filled up with lava, so that the observatory and the Eremo Hotel now stand on what looks like a small island in a vast palæocrystic sea of piled-up lava ice covered with dirty snow. The buildings are partly protected from the discharges of the main crater by a ridge or hill known as the Colle Umberto I.; but this hill itself seems to be part of an old eruptive cone, and, since it is liable at any time to become active again, the position of the observatory cannot be regarded as perfectly safe. Lava came down on the northern side of it in 1895, and on both sides in 1872, and the valleys which bound it are gradually becoming so choked and filled up that after a few more eruptions they will hardly be able to carry off the fiery streams which at intervals pour into them from above. The lava may then overflow their edges, push across the surface of the island, and tear observatory and hotel to pieces. My observations at Trecase satisfied me that nothing can withstand the thrust of a crawling lava avalanche fifteen or twenty feet in height. It is almost as irresistible as a glacier.

About a quarter of a mile beyond the observatory, the electric tramway ended in a bank of ashes; and, alighting from the train, we found ourselves in a dreary waste of slag, dust, and stones, out of which were projecting here and there ends of disconnected steel rails from the smashed road. Far below, and miles away, we could see half a dozen villages of straw-colored houses, standing amid gardens and green vineyards on the curving margin of a misty, pale-blue sea; but around us all was gray desolation, and above us rose, to what seemed a tremendous height, the steep, massive cone of the volcano, with steam drifting lazily away from its summit, and little whirlwinds of dust dancing and careering around the edge of its crater. Notwithstanding the complaint of Cook's manager that business was bad, on account of the fear with which sensational newspaper correspondents had inspired the traveling public, a dozen or more Neapolitans and foreign tourists, including a corpulent old lady and a rather attractive young woman in a long gray tailor-made gown, got out of the train with the intention, apparently, of making the ascent. The old lady, perhaps, expected to be carried up; but the young woman, with an ignorance of volcanoes that was surprising, and a self-confidence that was almost pathetic, seemed to have an idea that she could climb through deep, soft dust, to a height of two thousand feet, in a clinging, tailor-made gown long enough to sweep the level floor of a ball-room. Twenty-five or thirty guides, push-men and pull-men, with ropes and alpenstocks, met us as we alighted from the train and offered us their assistance, on terms that were roughly proportionate to the height of the volcano and the assumed depth of our ignorance and inexperience. With a desire to save my wife's strength as much as possible, to say nothing of my own, I engaged two Italian peasants, who declared that they were "ver' strong," to tow us up the cone with ropes. Their dragging power might not be great, but on a yielding surface, which is continually sliding downward, a rope is steadying; and, besides that, the feet of the guide ahead pack the soft dust a little, so that by stepping in his tracks one can get a somewhat firmer foothold. We had just spent six weeks at sea on a crowded steamer, where there was little room for exercise, and our muscles were not in the best condition for mountain-climbing.

For a distance of two or three hundred yards we skirted the base of the Colle Umberto I., and the walking was not difficult; but when we reached the southern slope of the main cone, we had to turn sharply to the left and start directly upward. At this point the gray-haired, corpulent old lady lost her breath and stopped; but the young woman in the tailor-made gown picked up her skirts and waded craterward through the dust at a rate of speed which led us to anticipate that she and her escort would not get half-way up. We were not mistaken. Twenty minutes later we met them on their way back. No woman in a long cloth skirt can climb, at the rate of four miles an hour, a volcano covered with a thick deposit of soft, yielding dust. Even with the help of

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two guides we could not make more than twelve hundred feet an hour, and toward the last we stopped every fifteen or twenty yards to rest and recover breath.

At a height of about thirty-two hundred feet we entered a shallow groove or trough in the mountain-side, which was very steep, and was filled, moreover, with loose, rounded lapilli having about the consistency of coarse gravel. Climbing, at an angle of forty-five degrees, in this detestable stuff, which rolled back in little avalanches under our feet and carried us downward almost as fast as we could step upward, was extremely exhausting. The guides, who feared that my wife's strength and endurance were nearing their limit, offered to carry her up this part of the ascent on their clasped hands; but she was determined to climb to the very top, and, after a rest of five minutes and a drink of water from my canteen, she struggled on. Half an hour later we were within two hundred feet of the summit, and could see two Italian officers, who had preceded us, standing on the brink of the crater against a background of light-bluish vapor. The ashes and lapilli here were so warm that we could feel the heat through our thick walking-shoes and leggings, and the little whirlwinds of dust which swept down on us from the summit brought a curious blacksmith-shop odor which was suggestive of subterranean fires, but was not strong enough to be irritating to the lungs. Encouraged by these indications that we were getting near the top, we emerged from the lapilli trough, walked with comparative ease over a hundred yards of ashes whose surface had hardened into a crust, and reached at last the brink of the crater. From a rather sharp edge we looked down over a projecting, ash-powdered shoulder of the crater wall into a great, explosion-torn gulf, whose marginal circumference was angular and irregular rather than circular, and whose dimensions appeared to be about one thousand feet by three or four hundred. The longest diameter was from northwest to southeast, and the highest side was that on which we stood—or the side toward the Bay of Naples. White steam in considerable volume was rushing from a neighboring fissure in the crater wall, and a faint bluish vapor was rising slowly out of depths into which we could not see. A sound like that of a boiling caldron, or a rushing wind, came up at intervals from below, but there was nothing like the deep, hoarse roar that I had heard in the crater of Mont Pelée. An active volcano is always impressive and awe-inspiring, even in its intervals of rest; but Vesuvius, as we saw it, displayed none of the terrifying features and phenomena which gave Pelée its grandeur, sublimity, and frightfulness. It was not overshadowed by drifting storm-clouds; it made little or no noise; and its quiet, nearly smokeless crater, flooded with the cheerful, all-revealing light of a noonday sun, looked like the caved-in top of an ordinary mountain. Such was not the case with Mont Pelée. The summit-crater of the latter, with its hoarse roar, its whirling and bewildering clouds, its abysses of darkness, its gigantic central cone of black lava-masses, its immense volcanic boulders, its ghostly wisps of pallid steam, and its towering column of surging, boiling vapor, looked like the mouth of the Biblical hell.

After spending fifteen or twenty minutes on the edge of the crater we started homeward. Getting down from Vesuvius is an easy task. A step of two feet is followed by a slide of six, and one feels almost as if one were equipped with seven-league boots. With a good Canadian toboggan it would be possible to coast a large part of the way from the edge of the crater to the level of the electric road. We were an hour and forty minutes in climbing up, but we came down in less than half an hour, and reached the Eremo Hotel before three o'clock. We were a little tired, but after luncheon and a rest we felt fresh enough to walk out again to the Colle Umberto and watch another party of tourists struggling with the difficulties of the cone. Most of them stopped far short of the crater, but their failure to reach it was mainly attributable to unsuitable dress and too much haste. The ascent of Vesuvius is not a hundred-yard dash, and the crawl of the turtle is better adapted to it than the jump of the jack-rabbit. Before the recent eruption tour-

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ists could "do" Vesuvius and Pompeii in a single afternoon and get back to Naples in time for an early dinner; but if they try to take the volcano at a rush now they collapse before they have climbed a thousand feet. The ascent, under present conditions, is attended with no risk whatever. Mont Pelée was dangerous at all times, because it exploded in terrific blasts, sent down floods of boiling water or torrents of liquid mud, and often became tremendously active without a moment's warning; but Vesuvius, in its intervals of rest, is not to be feared.

Before dinner, Professor Matteucci, the director of the Vesuvian observatory, was obliging enough to grant me an interview, but I obtained from him little information that was of value. With all due respect for his scientific attainments, I should describe him as a man lacking in curiosity, energy, and enterprise. Sir William Hamilton, while British Ambassador at the court of Naples in the latter part of the eighteenth century, made fifty-eight ascents of Vesuvius and four times as many visits to different parts of the mountain. Professor Matteucci, so far as I could learn, had visited the crater only twice since the latest eruption, and had been nowhere else. He could not give me the present height of the volcano, nor tell me how many streams of lava had descended from it, nor describe to me their location. If he had made any exact measurement of the ashes that fell in the vicinity of the observatory, he was noncommittal with regard to it, and when I asked him how much a cubic meter or centimeter of volcanic dust would weigh, he shrugged his shoulders and replied that he did not know. In view of the fact that thousands of houses had just been crushed by this dust, the weight of a layer one foot, two feet, or three feet deep would seem to be a matter of scientific interest as well as of practical importance; but he had never put a measured quantity of it into the scales. With regard to volcanic lightning—a phenomenon which my Martinique experience had made especially interesting to me—he could furnish no information, and in reply to questions concerning earthquakes he only said that during the worst of the eruption the seismic tremors were "strong and continuous." Perhaps the Professor regarded me as unduly inquisitive, or wished to save his scientific data for his own report; but a vulcanologist from northern Europe, whose acquaintance I happened to make that night at dinner, expressed a very unfavorable opinion of the work of the observatory, and complained that he had been unable to correct his aneroid readings for altitude because the observatory made no regular barometrical observations. As the result of four trips to the crater, however, he had fixed the present height of the crater rim on the Naples side at 4,142 feet, with a possible error of about forty feet. This would tend to confirm the opinion which I formed from photographs and observation that the height of the volcano was reduced a hundred feet or more by the falling in of the crater walls during the recent eruption. The crater is now much larger than it was, and the top of the mountain is more rounded.

From the best information that I have been able to get, the history of the late eruption is, briefly, as follows: Vesuvius began to show signs of unusual activity on Wednesday, April 4. The vapor issuing from the crater became at that time darker in color and more abundant in volume; the seismic instruments at the observatory recorded slight earth-tremors; and the dwellers on the mountain heard, now and then, subterranean rumblings and detonations which indicated that the volcano was in a state of unrest. These phenomena, however, seem to have attracted little attention and excited no alarm in Naples, and it was not until Wednesday, April 10—six days after the beginning of the eruption—that "Il Mattino," the principal journal of the city, put its volcano news on its first page. Up on the mountain itself, however, there was more apprehension; and Friday night (April 6) the situation there became so alarming that the employees of Cook's funicular railway abandoned their stations and fled to the observatory. A few hours later the eruption began with a great uprush of black vapor, accompanied by thunderings, detonations, and terrific volcanic

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lightning. A shower of incandescent matter from the summit-crater destroyed the upper station of the wire-cable railway, while a stream of lava burst out of the southern side of the cone, far below the crater, and ran down through vineyards in the direction of Torre dell' Annunziata and the sea. Before daylight this fiery current had reached the villages of Trecase and Bosco Trecase, and had produced there the effects that I described in a previous article. There were several other destructive streams, but they did not invade villages, and I have not been able to ascertain their magnitude or the courses that they took.

Although the volcano continued to pour out enormous volumes of dark-colored vapor, which showered ashes over a circle twenty or thirty miles in diameter, the eruption did not greatly increase in violence until the night of Saturday, April 7, when, with terrifying thunderings and detonations, the mountain ejected immense quantities of incandescent matter, and threw to twice its own height millions of tons of dust, lapilli, lava fragments, and hot slag. The wind, which at that time was blowing strongly from the southwest, carried the erupted clouds directly over Ottajano and San Giuseppe, and between 10 P.M. and 8 A.M. ashes fell in these two places at the rate of nearly five inches an hour. By this time eighty thousand people at least were in full flight, and the roads all around the base of the volcano from Somma to the sea were filled with horses, vehicles, and terrified fugitives seeking places of safety. The darkness does not seem to have been at any time absolutely impenetrable, as it was around Mont Pelée immediately after the destruction of St. Pierre; but the fall of ashes in Ottajano and San Giuseppe exceeded anything that I saw in Martinique. In modern times, so far I know, lapilli and dust have never fallen in ten hours to a depth of four feet, at a distance of three miles and a half from an erupting crater.

Shortly after midnight there was a slight shock of earthquake in Naples, and at about the same time the lower station of the cable tramway to the crater and the whole bed of the road itself were swept away by a tremendous avalanche of ashes. When Sunday morning dawned, Ottajano and San Giuseppe were buried and crushed under four feet of lapilli and dust; large parts of Trecase and Bosco Trecase were in ruins; thousands of houses had been destroyed; and more than five hundred people lay dead under ashes and fallen walls. On Monday the eruption continued, and Professor Matteucci sent word to the city that it would probably become necessary to abandon the observatory; but on Tuesday there was a lull, and on Wednesday the volcano seemed to have spent its force. It continued for three or four days to throw out vapor and ashes, but after Sunday there was little loss of life except that caused by the fall of the roof of the Monte Oliveto market in Naples. This accident, as I have already said, was mainly due to inexcusable negligence on the part of the municipal authorities. The Mayor of the city had been informed a year or two earlier that the roof was unsafe, but no attempt had been made to strengthen it, and when ashes began to fall on it no effort was made to remove them.

According to Mr. Alfredo Pastore, who has written a small brochure on the eruption, the losses caused by it are, in round numbers, as follows: Land rendered wholly useless, 52,000 acres, to the value of $6,200,000; land damaged, 103,000 acres, to the value of $6,000,000; dead, 550; wounded, 800; fugitives, 80,000.

In comparing the late eruption with that of Mont Pelée, one is struck by several noteworthy differences. In the first place, the West Indian volcano threw out laterally at least three explosive blasts, which went to a distance of more than four miles, and tore to pieces everything in their way. Vesuvius did not explode laterally at any time. In the second place, the summit of Pelée, during its period of activity, was a center of profound meteorological disturbance, and there came down from it, at short intervals, floods of water, fifteen or twenty feet in depth, which seemed to originate in cloudbursts, and which, on the lower slopes of the mountain, became destructive torrents of liquid mud. On

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Vesuvius there were no heavy rains during the eruption, and there has been little aqueous precipitation since. If cloudburst torrents had come down the ash-laden flanks of Mont Somma immediately after the terrific dust-storm of Saturday night and Sunday, Ottajano and San Giuseppe might have been as deeply buried in mud as Herculaneum was. In the third place, Pelée threw out no lava except half-solid, incandescent blocks, while from fissures in the southern side of Vesuvius molten rock flowed to a distance of two or three miles.

In reviewing the eruption of the Italian volcano, one is further struck by the invincible faith of the people in the intercession of saints, and their neglect to take any reasonable, common-sense precautions against avertable disaster. Nothing seems to shake their belief that if they assemble in a church and pray to the Virgin, to St. Joseph, to St. Lorenzo, or to some other saint, the force of gravity will suddenly cease to act, and volcanic ashes will lose their weight. On the night of April 7, when dust, lapilli, and stones were falling in Ottajano at the rate of five inches an hour, a part of the congregation of San Francesco took a big crucifix from their own altar, put crocks, pails, and wooden tubs over their heads to protect them from stones, and, with lighted candles in their hands, marched in procession through the darkness and the storm of ashes to the church of San Lorenzo, where there was a miracle-working image. The image was brought out, and the people were so frantic with fear and so crazy to get at St. Lorenzo the miracle-worker, and kiss him, that in the fracas he was torn to pieces in front of his own church. A few hours later the churches of San Francesco, San Lorenzo, and San Michele were all in ruins, and one hundred and five worshipers lay dead in the church of San Giuseppe.

One might think that such a reply to prayer as this would shake the most robust faith in the power of the Saints of the Lord; but it had no such effect on the surviving inhabitants of Ottajano. The first thing they did, after the roofs of their churches fell in, was to improvise an altar in the street and set up over it another image that had happened to escape destruction. This sort of thing has been going on in the circumvesuvian villages for at least a thousand years. Ottajano has been wholly or partly destroyed by ashes eight times; and yet the people continue to rebuild their roofs in the old, weak way, and rely upon the saints to save them from the consequences of their own stupidity. Throughout the recent eruption there were religious processions almost every day in Naples, and I am not sure that the relics of St. Januarius were not brought out once more to intimidate Vesuvius.

It is not surprising, perhaps, that an ignorant, priest-ridden people should behave in this way; but what about the scientific men, the scholars, and the civil authorities? Why do not they give the common people a little elementary instruction in physics, and say to them: "Pray, and march in processions, as much as you like; but don't fail to build your roofs with so steep a pitch that ashes will slide off from them." Vulcanologists tell us that the angle of permanent rest for loose materials on the surface of a volcano is only thirty degrees; and the avalanches which fall from Vesuvius during an eruption show that dust and lapilli cannot accumulate to a great depth on anything like a steep slope. Why not acquaint the people with these facts, and offer them suggestions with regard to strengthening and modifying the architecture of their roofs? The professors of the Imperial Observatory and the Government of Japan have given the people of that country not only suggestions, but directions and plans, for strengthening their houses to resist earthquakes. Why should not Italy take a hint from a nation which, in point of common sense and efficiency, is second to none?

Then, too, why do the officials and men like Professor Matteucci allow the people of the city to go into paroxysms of fright over the imaginary peril from Vesuvius? Naples is eight miles from the volcano, and in the course of nearly two thousand years no lava-stream has ever run to a distance of more than six miles, and no stream has ever come

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within two and a half miles of the municipal boundary. As for ashes, they may be shoveled off the roofs as fast as they collect, and are then perfectly harmless. No big volcanic boulders have ever fallen here, and none are likely to fall. If I were an insurance company, I would take volcano risks on the houses of Naples at a hundredth of one per cent., even in the midst of a violent eruption. What, then, is the use of getting out the relics of St. Januarius and allowing the people to become hysterical with panic every time that the volcano thunders and drops ashes in the streets? Vesuvius is not a source of danger to Naples, and never has been since the beginning of the Christian era.

SAN FRANCISCO RISING FROM THE ASHES

BY A STAFF CORRESPONDENT

ON the last day of my stay in San Francisco I made a pilgrimage down Market Street to the ferry. Trolley-cars were running at frequent intervals, but I preferred to walk, in order to have better opportunities for observation.

All around was the gray desolation of three weeks before—to the right the flat, empty squares of the Mission district; then the City Hall, as complete and picturesque a ruin as any Old World critic might demand; straight ahead the piled-up wreckage of the business district, dominated by the "Call," "Chronicle," and Flood buildings, and the St. Francis Hotel, significant witnesses to the sturdy character of modern steel construction; to the left the bare slopes of Russian and Nob Hills, marked only by an occasional chimney or blackened tree. The same desolation, but with a difference. Along Market Street and Van Ness Avenue, down through the Mission and about the City Hall, were rising long, low structures of redwood or corrugated iron, in some places built flat on the débris, in others utilizing old foundations or fragments of brick walls that might save a few hours of precious time in construction. One building with a staring sign, "Builders' Supply Depot—Doors, Windows, Mill Work," had for a background the shattered tower of the City Hall, as if emphasizing the need for just such commodities; another proclaimed an Office Building with fine accommodations for hire; in another the Daisy Café would open in a few days; many were divided into shops, ready for the stocks of goods hurrying to fill them.

Farther down Market Street gangs of men were tearing down walls, picking up brick, dragging out iron pillars and girders, carting off all kinds of débris from lots wanted for immediate rebuilding. Along Market and the other important streets south of it three of the railway companies had run temporary tracks to facilitate the almost interminable task of removing the wreckage. In a few days trains of flat cars would be run right into the city, to be loaded with rubbish with the minimum of carting and sent off to the outskirts of the city to dump it into swamps and depressions. In the modern buildings, whose frames and walls were unharmed by the earthquake and the fire, rapid progress was being made in clearing out and making ready again for occupancy. A sign on the "Call" building announced that the newspaper would be occupying its old home, with emergency accommodations, in another day. The St. Francis Hotel hoped to have two or three floors ready for the public in about a month. The Phelan building requested its old tenants desiring to renew their occupancy to make application at once.

San Francisco's business center was once more a very busy place. It was, doubtless, a very different kind of activity from that of the days before the earth-

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quake. But to one who could forget or who had not known the glory that had departed, it was full of promise and hopefulness. San Francisco will rise from the ashes—is rising now. It will take months to show even the beginnings of a substantial growth; business must go on in temporary structures for a long time, while the insurance question is being settled, financial readjustments made, buildings planned, and structural materials secured. It will take years to complete. But it has begun with energy and optimism and faith in the future.

How will the city be rebuilt? Will it become a finer, safer, and more beautiful city than before? Just the day before, the Mayor had unconsciously answered these questions when he said to me, "Everything points to a rapid upbuilding of a greater, finer San Francisco. I believe that in five years we will be able to say that the earthquake and fire were the best things that ever happened to the city." More evidence to the same effect I found on every hand. A few hours after my pilgrimage I attended a meeting of the Committee of Forty on the Reconstruction of the City. This body, headed by the Mayor, had among its membership city officials, financiers, railway men, labor leaders, builders, lawyers, a university president, ministers, and politicians. For several weeks its sub-committees had been working diligently on the problems presented by the rebuilding of the city. The more important of the sub-committees were those on Assessments, Municipal Revenue and Taxation, on Revision of Building Laws, on Municipal Buildings, on Federal Buildings, on Extending and Widening Streets, on Parks, Reservoirs, and Boulevards, on Sewers, Hospitals, and Health, on Water Supply and Fire Department, on Lighting and Electricity, on Transportation, on the Burnham Plan, on Permanent Location of Chinatown, on Condemnation of Old Buildings, and on Municipal Departments. Each of these had met frequently to investigate and discuss the subject intrusted to it, and was preparing as rapidly as possible detailed recommendations for the consideration of the main committee, and, when approved by that body, for presentation to the Board of Supervisors, the governing body of the city.

At the meeting in question the report of the Committee on Extending, Widening, and Grading Streets was presented by its Chairman, Mr. Herbert E. Law, one of the owners of the Fairmount Hotel. On the platform a large map of the burned section of the city showed graphically the changes and improvements described in the report. The Committee's recommendations were listened to with the closest attention and received with hearty applause, which was repeated in increased volume when the report was unanimously adopted by the Committee of Forty. The suggested improvements were divided into three classes, the first and most important to be carried out at once, the second after a period of five years, and the third after ten years. Since, however, almost all the lands required are now vacant and devoid of improvements, the Committee proposed a plan for securing these lands at once, even though the projected improvements were not to be carried out for some time to come. The plan contemplated the declaration by the city of its intention of purchasing or condemning within five years the required properties, and the issuance at once in payment for them of bonds to bear interest from the date of issue, with the proviso, however, that no interest and no part of the principal shall be payable before five years. This would enable the city to acquire the necessary lands during the five years without levying any tax for the purpose, and would give the property-holders in return bonds, which would undoubtedly be for a long term, and would consequently be desirable investments. The permanent character of the improvements would enhance real estate values everywhere, and the increased valuation would make the necessary taxation a very light burden.

Fortunately for the Committee, it had ready to hand an admirable basis for its work in the Burnham plan, prepared last year at the request of a body of public-spirited citizens by the eminent Chicago architect, Daniel H. Burnham, with the assistance of Edward H. Bennett and a corps of subordinates. The Burnham

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plan aims to present a comprehensive and homogeneous scheme for the development and beautification of the city during the next fifty years, interfering as little as possible with the present street system and existing property rights. San Francisco's hills, while they add to the natural beauty of the city's site, present difficulties in the problems of communication and transportation which in the laying out of the city thus far practically nothing has been done to surmount. The rectangular system of streets needs to be modified to suit physical conditions and to promote ease of communication. The Burnham plan contemplates a broad boulevard girdling the city, with diagonal streets opening up the present checker-board street plan and bringing now distant points nearer together. Extensive park systems, a civic center where the main public buildings shall be located, curved roads to reach the summits of hills now difficult of approach, and public squares wherever principal avenues come together, are other important features of the plan.

The Committee, properly realizing the great burden which the city must bear during the next few years in repairing the effects of the disaster, confined its attention to the burned district and to the most necessary improvements. The opposition which had developed against the expenditure of any money for the beautification of the city when so many real needs were pressing for relief prevented the consideration of any changes which could not be shown to be of practical advantage. Fire protection was one of the most important ends to be accomplished by the widening and rearrangement of streets. The value of a broad avenue as a barrier against the advance of the fire was amply demonstrated by the experience in the present disaster. The fire ran practically at will until it reached Van Ness Avenue, the hundred-foot boulevard marking the boundary of the Western Addition. There, with the aid of dynamite and a meager supply of water, its advance was checked.

So to create fire barriers was the first duty of the Committee, then to widen and extend trunk thoroughfares and important streets in congested districts, then to cut diagonals to correct the faults of the rectangular system and to secure practicable and economical access from the lowlands to the hill districts. In many cases, of course, the different purposes could not be kept distinct, two or more of them being served by a single improvement.

The three sets of suggestions are shown on the accompanying map. Those recommended for carrying out immediately are the most important. North of Market Street fire barriers and avenues of communication are formed by widening Montgomery Avenue to one hundred feet and extending it in one direction to Market Street and in the other to the bay; by widening Pacific Avenue throughout its length; by widening Pine Street from Van Ness Avenue to Dupont Street, and Dupont Street from Pine Street to Montgomery Avenue; by widening Commercial Street from the Ferry Building to Dupont Street. This last improvement will be of especial value as affording much-needed relief to a crowded section of wholesale trade. To secure easy access from the lower levels to the hill sections, a curved road is planned from the intersection of Commercial and Dupont Streets to Taylor Street and Pacific Avenue. The widening of Geary Street throughout its length is postponed for five years, and the cutting of other diagonal and curved streets conforming to the slopes of the hills is placed in the third class of suggestions.

South of Market Street Fremont Street is widened to continue the line of Montgomery Avenue; Folsom Street is given a width of 125 feet from Seventh Street to the bay, forming a great avenue of communication and fire barrier for that closely built region; Second, Third, Sixth, and Ninth Streets are each widened; diagonal streets are cut from the Ferry Building to Fremont and Folsom Streets, from Folsom and Third to Market forming a continuation of Sansome Street, and from Van Ness Avenue and Market Street to Seventh and Folsom. Other new streets are also suggested here for future construction. A semicircular space is planned in front of the Ferry Building, as

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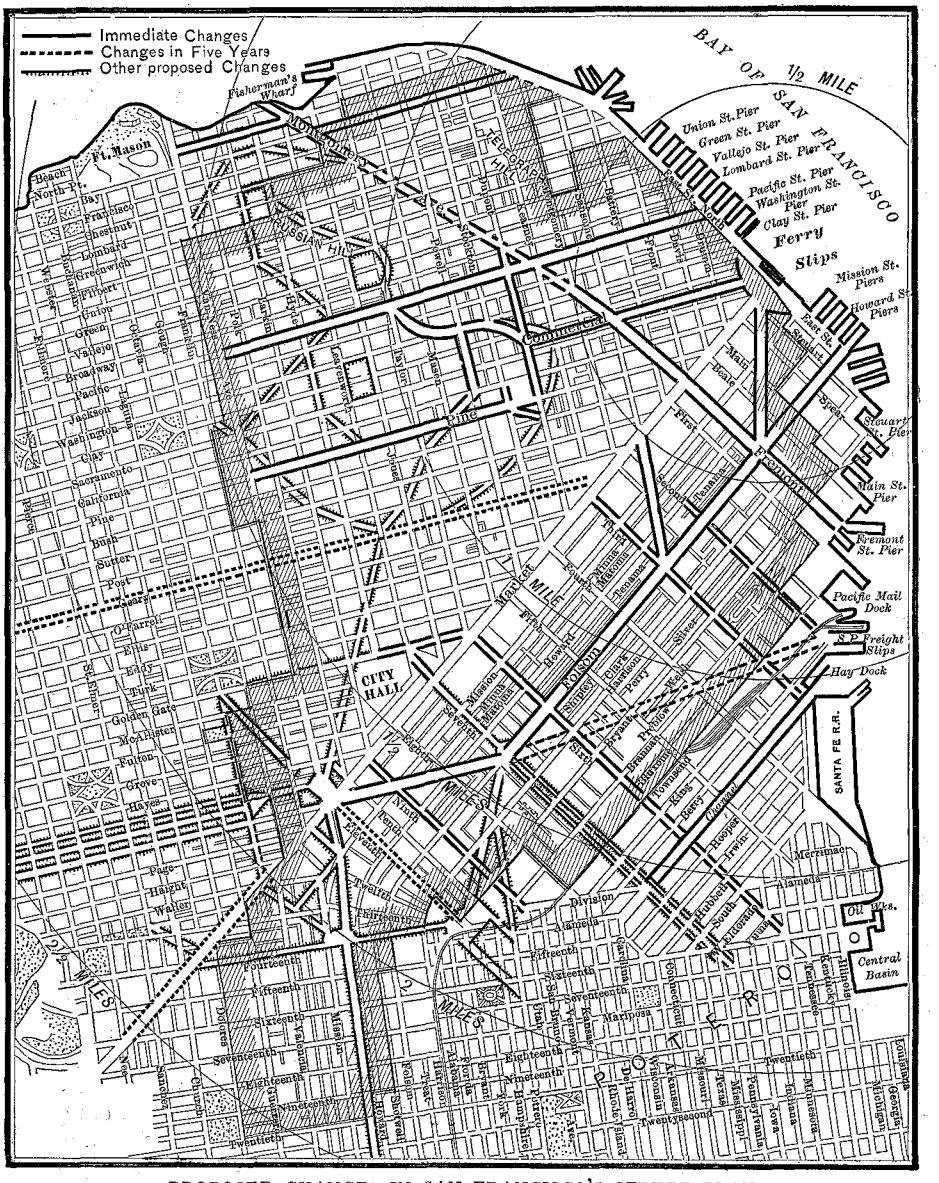

PROPOSED CHANGES IN SAN FRANCISCO'S STREET PLAN

The outline of the burned district is shown by shading

shown on the map, affording a commodious and dignified entrance to the city.

These recommendations of the Committee follow in the main the details of the Burnham plan, with certain modifications suggested by further consideration and the exigencies of the situation. On the day after their acceptance by the Committee of Forty, the Board of Supervisors with hearty unanimity approved the plan in general, and appointed a committee to investigate the cost of each improvement before final action was taken on any. It was probably inevitable that opposition to such a great undertaking should arise in some directions. There are always men in any community who will not subordinate their selfish interests to the common good, and San Francisco, in this emergency, has proved no exception. Property-owners the depth of whose lots would be lessened by the

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widening of streets have protested against the invasion of their rights. Others, fearful of the burden of taxation which the absolutely necessary expenditures by the city in the next few years will entail, object to any added levy for purposes which do not seem to them vitally essential. In spite of this opposition, however, the enthusiastic support of so many of San Francisco's best citizens will probably insure the carrying out of these admirable improvements.

Measures for the prevention and control of fires were among the most important subjects demanding consideration by the Reconstruction Committee. Fire was the immediate cause of San Francisco's destruction. More than nine-tenths of the loss resulted from it; and if the earthquake had occurred alone, the life of the city would have gone on practically uninterrupted. The earthquake was a great calamity, killing at least five hundred persons, and destroying the City Hall, a fine high school, a Catholic church, a Masonic Temple, a Jewish synagogue, a score or more of houses, and thousands of chimneys; but it was the fire that deprived hundreds of thousands of homes, food, and livelihood. It is true that the fire was caused by the earthquake, which started it in many places at once, and by cutting off the water supply made the stopping of it impossible. But, in so far as my observations went, the earthquake did no great damage that could not be prevented by foresight and care. In practically every case of damage to buildings poor construction seemed to be sufficient reason for the collapse; buildings of similar style and materials near by withstood the shock without appreciable injury. Honest, sound construction, then, with perhaps especial care in anchoring the building to its foundation and in bracing it against lateral strains, ought to reduce the danger of direct damage from such an earthquake as that of April 18 to a minimum.

The destruction of the water supply had more far-reaching results; but the breaking of the mains seems to have occurred, not throughout the city, but at a place near the source of the supply, where the pipes passed over soft alluvial ground. The results of scientific investigation show that the effect of earthquake shocks is always more severe in such places. The data furnished by this disaster are receiving the most careful consideration, and it seems highly probable that a water system can and will be installed that will be reasonably safe from future shocks.

The city, however, will not depend entirely on its main water supply for fire protection. An auxiliary supply, to be fed from the bay, and possibly to be stored in reservoirs on the tops of the hills, will be reserved for fire-fighting purposes. Acting Chief Shaughnessy, of the Fire Department, when I asked him what lessons could be drawn from the fire, replied:

"We've learned a lot of things. In the first place, broad streets at intervals are about the best protection there is, except water, of course. You can't do much without water. Dynamite worked well wherever we had a little water to help. But without it, it didn't do much good to wreck buildings. The ruins just fed the fire and let it run right along. But when we had even one small stream, we could keep the ruins wet, and stop the flames right there. We've got to have an auxiliary water supply for fire-fighting; and it ought to be stored in reservoirs, and not sent through mains. If the pipes of the principal water supply get broken, why shouldn't those of the other system? My idea would be to go back to the old days and have big cisterns at the intersection of streets, every few blocks. Put them under the pavement, and then we could run our pipes down through manholes and get all we needed. There may be a better way to do it, but that's one way, anyhow."

In addition to the creation of fire barriers and the installation of a water system for fire-fighting, as secure as possible against danger from future earthquakes, other measures for fire protection have been adopted. The fire limits, within which only buildings of certain specified types may be built, and no frame structures whatever, have been rearranged and extended. The building laws, also, have been revised and made more stringent. Especial attention has

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been paid to the classification of buildings by their materials and methods of construction, and their limitation in height, not only in relation to their classification but to the width of the street on which they stand.

The financial problem is the one that underlies all the others which San Francisco has to solve. The total loss is estimated by those in the best position to know at over three hundred and fifty million dollars. The loss on municipal buildings and equipment is estimated by Mayor Schmitz at sixty million dollars, by ex-Mayor Phelan at seventy-five million dollars. The city is completely stripped of its plant for carrying on the public business. It must have a City Hall, a hall of records, police stations and headquarters, jails, court-rooms, hospitals, fire-houses, and schools. In addition to the fine Girls' High School, completely wrecked by the earthquake, thirty other school-houses were burned.

The amount which must be spent at once to put this equipment on a working basis again is estimated in a telegram sent to President Roosevelt by the Governor, the Mayor, and the Chairman of the Finance Committee of the Committee of Forty, at not less than forty million dollars. With the value of the assessable property in the city reduced at least one-third, this is no small sum to add to the city's indebtedness. Fortunately, San Francisco's finances before the disaster were in an unusually good condition. The tax rate for current municipal expenses is limited by a provision of the city's charter to one dollar per hundred. This rate, even when increased slightly by a levy for parks and other purposes, was, in 1903, lower than that of any other city of 100,000 or more inhabitants in the country, with one exception.[1] The city had no bonded indebtedness until last year, when a $17,000,000 bond issue was authorized and $5,000,000 worth of bonds sold.

[1] Bulletin No. 20 of the United States Census, "Statistics of cities having a population of 25,000 or over, 1902-1903," gives the following rates per $100 of full valuation:

New York City	$1.342
Chicago	.935
Philadelphia	1.85
Milwaukee	.805
San Francisco	.699
Los Angeles	.500

With a low tax rate and an unusually small bonded indebtedness, therefore, San Francisco is in a better position to undertake the task of rehabilitation than almost any other city of equal size in the country would have been under similar conditions. The bonds authorized to be issued but not yet sold present a somewhat embarrassing problem, and an appeal has been made to the President in the telegram mentioned above. The suggestion is, "That the Secretary of the Treasury be authorized to accept the bonds of the city of San Francisco authorized by a popular vote before the fire, left unsold and now in the city treasury, amounting to $12,000,000, as security for the deposit of National moneys with the banks. The bonds already authorized bear 3½ per cent., and under the law they cannot be sold for less than par. Fundamental changes must be made in the laws to enable these bonds to be canceled and new bonds to be authorized. This will require a great delay. The suggestion made will enable the twelve millions of bonds to be immediately sold." If this plan can properly be carried out, it will be a valuable assistance to the city; in any case, the problem of the municipal finances seems not difficult of solution.

The commercial and personal loss approaches three hundred millions, covered by insurance amounting to one hundred and seventy-five millions. Unfortunately for a quick recovery and a rapid upbuilding, the payment of the insurance is very slow. The blow to the insurance companies represented in San Francisco has been great, and they have probably been doing their best to adjust themselves to the conditions and to make ready to pay their losses; their task is complicated by the combination of earthquake and fire, by the extensive use of dynamite, and by the fact that many properties were insured in from five to twenty companies. Even an appreciation of these facts, however, has not prevented a widespread feeling of irritation on the part of the San Francisco property-owners, which has not been allayed by the extremely uncommunicative attitude of the insurance representatives. Until the insurance is

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settled but little can be done. In most cases the insured are not permitted to remove débris from their lots until adjustment is made, and most of them will be powerless to improve their property until their losses are paid. When the insurance is paid, however, as it must finally be, and probably without any great discount from the full amount of the losses, building will go on rapidly. The will to do it exists in ample measure, and the necessary capital will surely be supplied.

One plan for financing extensive improvements was outlined to me by ex-Mayor Phelan. It contemplated the formation of a California corporation with ten million dollars of capital, supplied by San Francisco and Eastern capitalists, to issue debenture bonds secured by mortgages on San Francisco improved real estate. Other syndicates of both Eastern and Western capital are in process of planning, and the probability of the appearance of ample funds for the upbuilding of business and manufacturing centers seems a practical certainty.

The permanent housing of the 43,000 persons now living in tents and barracks in San Francisco is no small part of the financial problem. General Greely has expressed the opinion, after a careful study of the situation, that unless steps are taken to provide other than the present temporary shelter "there will be great suffering and considerable mortality among the poorer classes in San Francisco during the coming winter." With this in mind, it was suggested, in the telegram to President Roosevelt already referred to, that "the United States loan to the American National Red Cross ten million dollars, to be applied in aiding the re-establishment of the homeless in their homes before the next winter." The proposal is receiving serious consideration in Washington, with the amendment that the loan should be made to the people of San Francisco, on the security of the Clearing-House banks of the city, the loan to stand for ten years.

H. J. H.

IMPRESSIONS OF A CARELESS TRAVELER

STRIKING A BALANCE

REFLECTIONS suggested by this trip to the West Indies throw a little light on the problems created by our insular possessions; at least the trip has helped me to define the problems. They may be formulated thus: Are we to develop the islands or the islanders? and, Are we to govern them or to teach them self-government?

The first question is not so simple as it seems. When the English colonists landed on the shore of this Western continent, they found it inhabited by about half a million of roving Indians, who gathered a precarious living by hunting, fishing, and a little very primitive agriculture. It now furnishes livelihood for eighty millions of people. This result has been accomplished, not by developing the North American Indian, but by developing for a new race the North American continent on which they lived but which they did not truly occupy. No provision for the development of the Indians, though it combined industrial, intellectual, political, and religious education, could have accomplished for the world any such result. America for the American Indian would have been a false motto in the sixteenth century. Why is it any more true for Porto Rico, for the Sandwich Islands, or for the Philippines in the twentieth? The answer is to be found in the widely differing conditions. There was, in the first place, no adequate population in North America in the sixteenth century. However they were developed, it would have been physically impossible for the North American Indians to have occu-

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pied this continent. They were too few. But Porto Rico, the Sandwich Islands, and the Philippines are already occupied by populations quite adequate in number to make full use of the land. The natural way to develop this continent was to open it to immigration from the overcrowded Old World; the natural way to develop these insular possessions is to develop the people who already live there.

There is another equally noteworthy difference. The climate of America invited European immigration to America; the climate of the tropics forbids American immigration to the tropics. Immigration is along isothermal lines, and, I believe, always has been so. It is not that Americans cannot live in Porto Rico or Hawaii or the Philippines, but that they do not choose to do so. African immigration into those islands from our Southern States would be possible; but this would be a loss to our Southern States and no gain to the semi-tropical islands. If we are seeking wealth, African immigrants would not develop the wealth of these islands. If we are seeking human development, it is easier for us to develop the best that there is in the Afro-American if he remains in America than if we induce him to emigrate to our newly acquired islands. My conclusion, then, is that our hope for these insular possessions is education, not immigration. If we wish to develop the islands, we must find a way to develop the islanders. Our motto must be, Porto Rico for the Porto Ricans, Hawaii for the Hawaiians, the Philippines for the Filipinos. Justice, humanity, and political economy unite in enforcing this conclusion. So does observation in the West Indies, where the results of both policies can be seen to advantage.

My impression is that the Spanish and the French have done little or nothing to develop the islanders. The communities under their respective governments appear to me to have been retrogressive rather than progressive, though this is simply an impression which a more thorough knowledge might correct. Our trip included a stop of four hours at St. Pierre. It is truly a "deserted city." No living soul now dwells in its ruins. We did not see so much as a cat, a dog, a horse, or a bird. A few peasants came along the shore from some point down the coast to sell us curios, but as we sailed away we saw them going back again to their homes. I do not think history furnishes a more dramatic tragedy: A city of thirty thousand inhabitants is preparing for a special festivity on a beautiful May day; a fiery sand-laden hurricane from the opened mouth of the neighboring mountain strikes it, and in five minutes not a roof is left upon a house, and only one living soul in the entire city. There was on our ship a general impression that the city had a reputation for peculiar vice; that it was a kind of modern Sodom. Whether it was really destroyed because it was so wicked, or whether it has since been adjudged peculiarly wicked because it was so dramatically destroyed, I do not know. The reported figures as to illicit births, though they are appalling, are significant of vice but are not absolutely conclusive. Yet they suggest what one Frenchman (Daudet), in "Tartarin of Tarascon," has said about French civilization: "A savage, rotten population, which we are civilizing by giving them our vices." Nor was this suggestion contradicted by the few hours which we spent in the chief city of the island—Fort-of-France. To me it was, from any point of view, the least attractive city we visited on our cruise.

Whether this impression of French influence is correct or not, there can be no doubt as to the influence of Spain. Her remorselessly inhuman treatment of her insular possessions is matter of history which need not be repeated here. What emancipation has done for her former subjects is apparent to the most careless observer. Two of our party had been in Havana the spring after the expulsion in Spain. They agreed in their testimony that the improvement in Havana in the eight years which had since intervened was incredible. They would hardly have recognized the city. One vacant square that had been a dumping-ground for ashes and refuse was a little

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park; a beautiful drive along the shore of the bay and the ocean had been constructed; the streets were clean with a cleanliness which would have served as a stimulating example to any American city that I have ever known; and this cleanliness was as characteristic of the poorest quarter as of the most characteristic. We saw a squad of officials with apparatus going along the streets of the city treating all standing water for the purpose of killing the mosquitoes, and we were told that they went into all the private houses and subjected every back yard to their scrutiny. The hacks, which under the Spanish régime were disreputable in every respect—carriage, harness, horses, and driver—are now not inferior to the average in New York, Boston, or Philadelphia, and superior to those of most of the smaller American cities; the hotels are attractive looking, and the one restaurant we tried was clean and in good order, with fair table and service; even the omnibuses, which as late as 1904 Ober described as "still dirty and despicable," were decent-looking, though, it must be acknowledged, aged and infirm. We walked in safety at night through the dimly lighted and deserted streets that led along the wharves to the wharf from which we were to embark in the launch for our steamer. The shops were attractive and busy; the shopping quarter was thronged with a prosperous-looking people. The principal shopping street is so narrow that carriages cannot pass each other, so that all carriages are required to go in one direction and take a parallel street for their return, and in the middle of the day the shoppers are so numerous that no carriages are allowed in the street, which is converted into a promenade for the exclusive use of pedestrians. Even in the poorest parts of the city, through which our chauffeur took us in an automobile, there was little or no sign of pauperism, and nowhere did we see any begging. Much of this improvement is due to American occupation; and General Wood, with an ambition which was pardonable rather than laudable, has left in more than one inscription the memorial of his work. But if the Americans cleaned Santiago and Havana, the Cubans have kept them clean. And, generally speaking, it is safe to say, comparing Havana as we saw it with Havana as the guide-books of ten years ago described it, Spanish dominion repressed Cuba and despoiled the island, and emancipation has already done wonders in developing the islanders and promises to do much in the development of the island.

The impression produced by the Danish and the English West Indies was different. The government may have been expensive, but it has been and apparently is just, and, since emancipation, trade is free and is encouraged. Charlotte Amalie in St. Thomas and Bridgetown in Barbados and Kingston in Jamaica have an appearance of prosperity, and Port-of-Spain, the principal commercial port of Trinidad, was unmistakably a very active business center. The general air of the people in all these islands was one of content, though in Barbados, and to a less extent in Jamaica, one of poverty. It was interesting to us Americans to note that such measure of commercial prosperity as they enjoy is due largely to America. Both exports and imports—Trinidad may have been an exception—are more largely with the United States than with England, and, what is more significant, are increasingly so. I will not load this letter up with statistics; but my impression in this respect was gained from a brief examination of the English official trade reports. If the government of the English West Indies has not been exclusively for the benefit of the governed, if the salaries of the officials and the expenses of the government have been out of proportion to the income of the islands, as is charged by some careful students of conditions, and as may be true, there can be no question that the social and industrial conditions of the common people in Barbados, Trinidad, and Jamaica have been improved by the English rule. That a limit to this improvement has already been reached, and that the only way to pass beyond that limit is to develop a system of self-government, is, I am inclined to think, true. But the question of government must be left for a succeeding letter. L. A.

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EUROPEAN TRAVEL-HINTS FOR ECONOMICAL TOURISTS

BY EDWIN ASA DIX

IT is with travel as with trade. The successful tradesman must know the market. He must buy to advantage, claim all legitimate discounts, not pay more than another for the same goods. He need not lessen quality, but he must watch cost. Else his trade cannot prosper.

For many persons of moderate means travel is not possible except on like terms. The cost of a trip to Europe has often to be very carefully reckoned, and every lessened item of expense means an added day or an added city on the tour. And even persons better circumstanced are not disposed to pay a high price where a low price will buy the same thing.

One of the two halves of the travel budget is of course the railway ticket, the other being the hotel bill. Europeans have learned how to lessen the cost of the former. They are content to see the American tourist in his innocence continue to pay the full fare, but they themselves have long ago claimed reduced rates. Hence have originated a multitude of devices for lessening the cost of travel to the home consumer, resulting in special tickets of varied and ingenious kinds. These are of course ostensibly available for every one, resident or visitor; but in practice the benefit inures almost entirely to the resident, because the visitor, especially the casual American visitor, rarely hears or knows about them.

Yet there is no reason why the latter should not benefit as well as the former; why he should pay more than the other for the same goods. And he need not. Out of the varied forms of reduced-rate transportation always to be had on European railway systems, some will be found to fit almost every traveler's needs at one time or another.

These forms of special tickets comprise kilometer or mileage books, "time-age" tickets, half-fare permits, group tickets, circular-journey tickets, Sunday and holiday tickets, commutation tickets, shareholders' tickets, and others. In France, for example, you can plan almost any circular tour you choose, over any or all of the main lines, and you are allowed to pay for it by the purchase of kilometer-books, containing any desired number of kilometers from 300 upwards. (A kilometer is five-eighths of a mile.) 300 kilometers costs 27 francs, say $5.40, first class (regular fare, 33 frs. 60), and 19 francs second class, good for thirty days; 1,000 kilometers costs 81 francs first class (regular fare, 112 francs), and 60 francs second class; 5,000 kilometers, 250 francs first class (regular fare, 560 francs), and 180 francs second class, good for sixty days. This last works out, in American equivalents, at $1\frac{3}{5}$ cents a mile first class, and $1\frac{1}{10}$ cents second class, a discount of no less than 55 per cent. from the regular fare, which in France is calculated at about $3\frac{3}{5}$ cents a mile first class, and $2\frac{2}{5}$ cents second class. For 10,000 kilometers the cost drops even lower—to $1\frac{1}{3}$ cents a mile first class, and less than a cent a mile second class. With such reductions as these one need actually use but half his ticket, or even less, and still save money. Thus if you are in Paris and plan a trip to Brittany and the Touraine châteaux, crossing afterward into Switzerland, you can order a circular ticket of this nature, reading from Paris back to Paris, and, after making the main trip, you can at the Swiss frontier cheerfully sacrifice the final part and still be a considerable gainer.[1]

Another device now in force on the French railways, but little known to the outside public, is the sale of permits entitling one to buy tickets at half price.

[1] France and the other European countries issue also combined *international* circular tickets of similar kinds at similar reductions.

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These permits, which are of course non-transferable, may be made available over any one of the seven main railway divisions of France, or over any three, or over all of the seven combined. Thus, for example, on payment of 95 francs you are entitled for three months to purchase second and third class railway tickets at any and every station in France, and for any and every trip desired, at half the regular fares. Terms for other periods and classes are in proportion. How great a saving can be effected in this novel manner will readily be perceived, the principle applying wherever the regular cost of the total tickets to be purchased exceeds twice the price of the permit; and this method of ticket-buying ought to be much more widely known by travelers planning extended tours in France.

Another interesting species of French ticket is the zone ticket. The Paris, Lyons, and Mediterranean Division, for instance, divides certain parts of its territory into zones or travel districts. One covers Dauphiné, another Savoy, another Auvergne, another the Jura, and so on. By payment of a fixed sum you may travel at will anywhere within one of these zones—as long and as far and as often as you please—during a fixed period of time; and you are allowed in addition 300 kilometers of free travel to and from the zone. Dauphiné and Savoy, though in France, not in Switzerland, contain some of the finest scenery in the Alps, and are becoming increasingly popular with those to whom most of Switzerland proper is now a familiar story. For a fifteen-day pass, good throughout the Dauphiné zone, you pay 68 francs first class, or 46 francs second class; for a thirty-day pass, 102 francs or 69 francs respectively. Other rates apply to other zones. These tickets, which are available during the summer travel season, can often be used to very great advantage.

The foregoing are a few of the various forms of reduced-rate tickets in force on the French lines. There are also countless special route tickets (such as the delightful tour from Paris to Nantes, St. Nazaire, Tours, Chenonceaux, Amboise, Blois, Orléans, and back to Paris for 86 francs first class, or 63 francs second class, as against regular fares of 133 francs or 98 francs, respectively), seaside excursion tickets, holiday tickets, commutation tickets, etc., all issued at marked reductions.

While on the subject of France, an incidental warning may be given to travelers to throw away any matches in their possession before entering that country. The importation of matches is prohibited. Formerly the customs officials simply confiscated any that were found; but latterly severer measures have been instituted, and a fine of a franc a match is levied and sometimes actually enforced. As a small box can hold a surprising number of matches, this is apt to prove an expensive investment for the unwitting voyager "caught with the goods on."

Coming next to France's close neighbors, Belgium and Holland, Belgium likewise has various systems of ticketing, but the one of most interest to the passing traveler is that similar to the zone system above described. All Belgium is the zone, with a mileage of 2,500 miles. For 30 francs first class and 20 francs second class you can travel at will over the entire system for a period of five days; or for twice these sums you can travel for fifteen days. There are proportionately lessening rates for longer periods, up to a full year.

On the Belgian time-tables, it may be remarked, the A.M. and P.M. have been banished, and the time is reckoned up to twenty-four o'clock. Thus, 13.15 is the equivalent of 1.15 P.M., and 23.30 is half-past eleven at night.

In Holland a peculiar but simple form of ticket is the General or *Algemeene Vacantiekaart*. During July, August, and September you may for 4 florins (8 francs or $1.60) first class, or 3 florins second class, travel from any one station to any other on the four leading Dutch railway systems. This ticket is good only for the day of issue, and is not good for a stop-off. It practically means that no summer railroad fare in Holland can exceed this price. Still cheaper because more limited in scope is the *Special* or *Bijzondere Vacantiekaart*, which for 2 florins first class, or 1 fl. 50 second class,

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permits a trip from any one of the six chief cities, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, The Hague, Leyden, Gouda, and Utrecht, to any one of a group of twenty enumerated towns and villages, or vice versa. The Dutch also issue passes for certain zones of unlimited travel, like the Dauphiné and other French zones above described, but obtainable at any season of the year. They also issue kilometer books at rates even lower than those in force in France. For another feature, six persons in a party first class, or eight persons second class, pay only half fares for a single journey and single fares for a round trip. This is a privilege that it is well to know about, as very frequently parties of friends may number six or even eight, or travelers bound in the same direction can buy their tickets together.

In Germany various reductions are obtainable on the different State systems. The Grand Duchy of Baden, for instance, issues kilometer-books: 1,000 kilometers, 60 marks ($15) first class, 40 marks second class, or 25 marks third class; good for a year, and usable by the owner and his family or party. In Wurtemburg, as in Belgium, you can buy a fifteen-day zone ticket entitling you to travel at will, for 45 marks first class, 30 marks second class, or 20 marks third class. Other States of Germany likewise issue various special tickets. And for the united Empire kilometer-books from 600 kilometers upward may be purchased for fixed tours at a reduction of one-third from the regular fares.

In Austria the Government now owns about half the railways, and will eventually own them all. On both the Government and the private lines reduced tickets for fixed circular tours may be had; also yearly permits to buy tickets at half price. The latter permits cost 220 kronen (francs) first class and 130 kronen second class. If these permits were issued for shorter periods, with rates in proportion, as in France, they would be more useful to the passing traveler. There are also fifteen-day and thirty-day summer tickets for certain zones of unlimited travel.

Switzerland has reduced to perfect system the gentle art of enticing travelers and separating them from their spending-money. It is all so scientifically, so suavely, so painlessly done, that the process merits the highest admiration. The entire nation lives and thrives on travelers. They are its chief imports and exports. All other Swiss industries—cheese-making, lace-making, watch-making—are as nothing beside the gigantic travel industry. The Alps are a colossal monopoly, and are the stock in trade of the greatest trust in the world—the glorious Swiss Republic, the playground of Europe!

Now, all men are free and equal before the Swiss law. All must be treated alike. But the Swiss do not really quite want to treat all alike—at least, not including themselves. They want—perhaps naturally—to give themselves a certain preference, while seeming to be studiously just and equal to all nationalities. Being insiders—stockholders, as it were, in this huge and highly profitable trust—they want rebates which the ordinary customer does not get.

They get them. Prices in the shops everywhere in the country are less for a native than for a foreigner. This rule runs through everything, applying to the peaches and grapes of the voluble market-woman no less than to the bric-à-brac of the city stores. The entrance of a foreigner, especially an American or Englishman, to make a purchase is an instant signal for the higher tariff to go into effect. Something of the same principle is applied to travel. Swiss railway and steamboat fares are not low. The visiting tourist ordinarily pays them without question. They are printed plainly on the tickets, and so he knows there is no cheating, and in his innocence he supposes that he is getting the same value for his money as everybody else. But the Switzer is paying no such prices. He has developed the special-ticket system to the point of perfection, and there are few occasions when he cannot bend it to his uses. He does not advertise it very loudly, nor try to call the world's attention to it, and the most of the vast throng of American tourists that yearly submerges the country are not even aware that these devices exist.

To illustrate by an actual instance. A tourist visiting the charming old town of

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Thun last summer wanted to take a little morning steamer trip to Oberhofen and Gunten on the lake. He could not make use of a return ticket to Gunten, because that would not allow a stop-off at Oberhofen, which lies between. So he naturally reasoned that the cheapest way would be to buy a return ticket first to Oberhofen, make a stop there, and then buy a return ticket from there to Gunten, using both return halves to come back to Thun. The return ticket from Thun to Oberhofen, plainly marked on the ticket, cost 1 fr. 40 (28 cents); that from Oberhofen to Gunten, 1 fr. 40 more, making 2 fr. 80 in all.

The astute Thun resident would have made the same trip for 1 fr. 15.

He would have done this simply by using his *Familien Abonnement* book. These books contain 100 numbers or coupons, and cost only 3 francs. They are purchasable by any one who knows of them, are usable by more than one person in a party, and are good on all steamers and trains on Lake Thun and all steamers on its close neighbor, Lake Brienz.[1] Coupons are detached according to the distance traveled, as shown by a tabulated scale in the cover. From Thun to Oberhofen, first class, requires 12 numbers; from Oberhofen to Gunten, 12 more; and from Gunten back to Thun, 14, making 38 in all, or the equivalent of 1 fr. 15.

As a matter of fact, the astute Thun resident would have done even better than this. He would have gone second class (which is quite as satisfactory on Swiss steamers as on Swiss trains, though most tourists have an impression that it is not), and in that case the trip would have required only 20 numbers, and would have cost him precisely 60 centimes, or 12 cents instead of 56!

Similar coupon-books are in force on the other Swiss lakes, and the intending traveler will do well to make a note of them, as they can often be used very advantageously, even on single trips where several persons are traveling together. On Lake Geneva there is a different scale of coupon values, and the books cost 20 francs first class and 10 francs second class. The saving on these is from one-third to two-fifths of the fare. Another and more curious "wrinkle" for Lake Geneva steamboat travel is the use of a *carte d'actionnaire*, or shareholder's card. The owner of every $100 share of stock in the steamboat company receives annually one of these cards, entitling him to one free trip on the lake in any direction, and carrying in addition the privilege of buying first-class tickets at second-class rates for the entire year. These cards being transferable by the original holder, many are always for sale by the Geneva, Lausanne, and Vevey banks during the first four months of each year, at about 8 or 10 francs each.

On Lake Lucerne the coupon-book costs 12 fr. 50, first class. Here the saving varies from a third to a half. On Lake Zurich the books cost five francs each, and are based upon a reduction of just one-half.

The form of Swiss ticket most useful to know about for any one who proposes to travel rather rapidly by rail and to cover a good deal of ground in a limited time is the *General Abonnement* or zone ticket. This entitles the holder to travel unlimitedly on all the main railways and all lake steamers in the country during the length of time that the ticket is good. A new and slightly raised schedule of prices for this form of ticket has just been put into effect, including the Rhætian Railway system, which was formerly excepted, and including also the new Simplon Tunnel route. The rates are as follows:

	First Class.	Second Class.
For 15 days.....	80 francs	55 francs
" 30 "	120 "	85 "
" 45 "	160 "	110 "
" 3 months....	280 "	195 "
" 6 "	440 "	310 "
" 12 "	690 "	485 "

The rates for third class are one-half those of first class. The third-class ticket is good for second class on lake steamers, and the second-class ticket is good for first class. This form of ticket is now much used by the Swiss themselves, and should be better known by visiting travelers. It is practically a form of unlimited pass, and it makes the

[1] Books of 200 numbers, at 6 francs, are good furthermore on the branch railways running from Spiez to Frutigen and Zweisimmen.

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holder free of the entire steam transportation system of the country, with the exception of certain local mountain railways. An order for such a ticket must be given two hours in advance at the main railway stations, and twenty-four hours in advance at the smaller stations, and a small photograph of the holder, which any local photographer will furnish, must be affixed to the ticket. It gives one a curious and enjoyable sense of independence to be able to step on a train or boat at any moment, flash his pass in the eyes of the guard, and travel as long and as far as he pleases without further concern as to ticket-buying or the expense of his journey.

Season tickets of the same kind can be purchased for steamboat travel alone on each of the different Swiss lakes; and these tickets are frequently more profitable than even the coupon-books.

Another variety of Swiss ticket is the group ticket. For a certain number of persons in a party substantial reductions from the regular fare may be obtained. Thus, on the famed trip over the Wengern Alp, one of the finest railway excursions in the mountains, the regular round-trip ticket from Interlaken costs, by the two respective classes, 23 fr. 45, and 14 fr. 25; but if three or more persons buy their tickets together, the price (except in mid-season) is reduced by thirty per cent. If ten persons combine for the cog-wheel trip from Territet up to the Rocher de Naye and back, the price is reduced by twenty-five per cent., falling from 12 francs each to 9 francs each. The same principle applies to numerous other trips. Frequently special rates will be quoted for a party, if application is made in advance.

Next come the circular-journey tickets. On any Swiss circular tour that you may plan, of at least 200 kilometers, and returning to the starting-point, you may claim a reduction of twenty-five per cent. Better even than this, if you can avail yourself of any of the numerous ready-made circular tickets elaborated by the Swiss railways, and covering almost every possible circular trip in the country, the reduction is still greater, running to forty and forty-five per cent. Folders, such as the "Supplement au Conducteur," giving lists of these combinations, are on sale for 20 centimes at booksellers' and at the stations.

Then there are the Sunday and holiday tickets. The Swiss travel chiefly on Sundays and holidays; and so for most of the usual trips the fares are largely reduced, and for certain excursions cut squarely in half. Thus on week days it costs 3 francs to go from Lake Thun up to St. Beatenberg by the cable railway and return; on Sundays the fare is 1 fr. 50. On week days it costs 13 fr. 50 to go from Lucerne to the Rigi and back; on Sundays, by certain boats and trains, only 6 fr. 50.

Turning now to the south, Italy—which, by the way, arranges its railway time-tables like Belgium, on the 24 o'clock system—offers fewer kinds of reduced-fare tickets than most of the other European countries. It has a special tariff of fares for employees and the like, but this tariff is, of course, not available for the tourist. There are, however, seven zones for unlimited travel, which among them comprise all Italy and Sicily, and may sometimes be found advantageous. One zone covers Lombardy, another Piedmont, a third Tuscany, a fourth the entire middle-west coast from Pisa and Florence to Naples; two others divide southern Italy, and one covers Sicily. A pass including all seven zones is also issued, costing for one month 300 lire (francs) first class, or 210 lire second class; for two months, 475 lire and 330 lire, respectively; and for longer periods in reduced proportion. There are, furthermore, certain forms of special tickets obtainable on the Italian Lakes.

A highly important hint may here be given regarding Italian travel in general. It relates to the safety of baggage. Italy has a bad reputation in this respect, travelers' trunks being every now and then opened in transit and valuables abstracted. Locks seem to offer little defense. To prevent any chance of loss of this sort, have your baggage officially *sealed* when it is registered or checked at departure from a station. The baggage-room at nearly every station is provided with lead seals, cord, and a clamp or punch. The cord is passed through the hasp or strap or some convenient part of the trunk and lid, and securely tied,

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and a seal is attached, and stamped with the name of the station. The charge is 25 centesimi (five cents) a seal, and as many may be affixed as desired. The agent must then write on your luggage-receipt the word *piombato* (sealed), and your chain of evidence is complete. The trunk should be inspected immediately on arrival at the station of destination, and if any of the seals are found broken or tampered with, you have your receipt to prove that the act was done *en route*. But thieving employees rarely care to molest a piece of sealed baggage, as the risk is too great, and there is always plenty of unsealed—owing to the fact that so few tourists in Italy know of or take this simple precaution.

As an additional or alternative safeguard, baggage can be insured in some of the tourist agencies against loss or theft. The premium is about one per cent. a month, three per cent. for six months, or five per cent. a year on the full valuation.

An interesting hint may be given to intending European tourists on the subject of the foreign hotel bill. This may frequently be not a little lessened by the exhibition of a membership card in one of the national travel, automobile, or bicycle associations. Every country, for example, has one or more large and influential bicycle organizations. In France there is the Union Vélocipédique, and also the Touring Club de France; in Holland, the Algemeene Nederlandsche Wielrijdersbond; in Germany, the Deutscher Radfahrer-Bund; in Switzerland, the Touring Club Suisse; in Italy, the Touring Club Italiano; and in England, the Cyclists' Touring Club of London. It is not necessary to belong to all these associations, of course; any one of them will suffice, as each has reciprocal arrangements with the others and with the hotels in all countries. Perhaps the English club is the most convenient for Americans to join. Membership costs but five shillings ($1.25) a year, with a first entrance fee of a shilling; and, armed with a "C. T. C." card and a list of its recommended English and Continental hotels, you are entitled to claim not only each hotel's minimum terms, but usually a cash discount also, ranging from five to twenty per cent.; so that the cost of membership is frequently recouped in two or three days. This concession is, of course, intended primarily for cyclists; but this is by no means an essential, and any member of the organization, whether on tour or not, and whether accompanied by a wheel or not, is freely entitled to the discount on showing his membership card. Nor is it necessary that the card should be shown at the time of arrival. Rooms may be secured and arrangements completed first, and the discount claimed afterwards. This is expressly provided for in the contract between the hotels and the clubs.

These clubs are important organizations and can wield much power, consequently few landlords care to give their representatives or members any just cause for complaint. It is also to be pointed out that to take a membership in one of these clubs confers benefit not merely on the individual and on the club, but on the entire traveling fraternity. These wheelmen's associations, like the League of American Wheelmen at home, are entirely disinterested and public-spirited bodies; and they have done much everywhere to improve roads, erect signposts and warnings, ameliorate hotel conditions, and in numerous ways aid not only cyclists but the general tourist as well. The same is true of the various automobile and other travel associations. The Cyclists' Touring Club has a membership of 40,000. With an annual income from dues of $50,000, it can be seen that very substantial things may be done yearly for the traveling public.

The foregoing facts and figures and suggestions are intended simply to put the traveler in Europe on the line of profitable inquiry. They have been gained from a somewhat wide experience in Continental travel, and verified by considerable inquiry and official correspondence. They clearly demonstrate that the price of fare printed on one's ticket or stated in the guide-book is by no means an ultimate standard of value, and that there are numerous ways known to the initiated by which it can be legitimately and largely reduced. By following up some of the clues here given, the traveler will find that he can materially lessen the expected cost of his tour.

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THE PEOPLE OF THE STEERAGE

AS the stream of immigrants is traced from its mouth in America to its source, it is found to cause a problem quite as truly in the countries through which it flows and in which it originates as it does in the country which receives it. No other migration of which history makes any record appears to be so vast and so complicated. It is unlike former migrations in two other respects also: it has been artificially fostered by the great companies which make modern transportation unprecedentedly easy; and it is, by virtue of the same ease of transportation, accompanied by vast returning currents.

The effect of this migration upon different countries varies according to the relation it bears to those countries. In one it means the draining of the land of its laborers and its fighting forces; in another it means a form of trespass by intruders who enter only to pass through, leaving behind them money and disease. In the United States it is a congestion of humanity—an inflow of new blood, partly good, partly bad, and at all times difficult to regulate.

Mr. Whelpley's book is a study of the problem which the immigrant occasions not only in the country in which he lands, but also in the countries from which he comes and through which he passes. A large part of the book consists of a résumé of the laws which each of the countries confronted with the problem, in one form or another, has adopted. It is of great value as a presentation of the vastness of the problem and particularly of its international character. If there is one thing that is clear from the facts which are stated in this book, it is that no civilized nation can with self-respect much longer attempt to deal with this problem independently of other nations. It is ridiculous, for instance, that Belgium should undertake to forbid the officials of other countries to make inspection of emigrants on Belgian territory. Another thing that is clear is that the artificial promotion of migration which has grown out of modern commerce requires governmental regulation. If the size and course of this stream were determined by purely economic forces, the problem would be simpler. Human credulity, cupidity, and stupidity, however, cannot be safely left to work unregulated. The problem of the immigrant is an intensely human problem; in it are involved other laws than those of supply and demand. Not even war presents a more fitting subject for international accommodation than this commerce in human cargoes.

Mr. Whelpley's book is the result of a year's study in various countries. Its survey is, therefore, wide.

Mr. Hall's book, in contrast, is principally devoted to a consideration of immigration as it affects the United States. It therefore enters into a much more detailed consideration of that aspect of the problem than Mr. Whelpley's book. On the other hand, it is much more a presentation of personal views on the subject. Mr. Hall is Secretary of the Immigration Restriction League, and has decided opinions on the subject, which he does not endeavor to conceal. His book is much more than Mr. Whelpley's an argument in favor of certain policies. He gives, with evident intention of fairness, both sides of the various questions he raises; but he reaches certain definite conclusions which he urges upon his readers. In some respects we think he argues upon false premises. For instance, he reaches the conclusion that the inspection of immigrants abroad by American officials is impracticable. His chief objection to the plan, which has the indorsement of the Commissioner-General of Immigration, is that honesty and efficiency of officials operating at long distances from the United States could not be assured. This, of course, is based on the same distrust of democratic government which leads to the notion that the United States is incapable of governing distant possessions. The fact that our consular service has not been equal to its tasks in the

[1] *Problem of the Immigrant.* By James Davenport Whelpley. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3. net.
Immigration. By Prescott F. Hall, A.B., LL.B. Henry Holt & Co., New York. $1.50.

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past is not an argument against using the machinery of the consular service to relieve the outrageously overburdened forces in American ports; it is an argument for the urgent necessity of making the consular service better. Similarly, other arguments which Mr. Hall presents will meet with opposition from thoughtful readers. Nevertheless, the mass of facts which he has collected and the interpretation of those facts which he gives, brought together in the compass of a single volume, will be found convenient and illuminating.

Both books alike impel the reader to the conclusion that in dealing with this serious and complex problem the Federal Government cannot take too great pains, and the people of the country cannot be too well informed. One method, it is also clear from the facts presented in both books, has been in the past effective, and ought in the future to be more stringently applied—that is, the method of holding the steamship companies responsible for accepting immigrant passengers who do not comply with the law. This is not only effective, but also just. These companies, like other concerns, have been engaged in building up their business. A boatload of human freight is a highly remunerative cargo. These companies have therefore been largely responsible for the vastness of this migration; they ought to be held responsible for its character, and particularly for the decent and humane treatment of the persons they convey. There ought to be imposed on them greater penalties for evasion of the law, and there ought to be required of them better accommodations for their steerage passengers, and more compliant co-operation with National officials. They ought not, of course, to be dealt with oppressively; but they are in no danger of suffering from oppression. In the interest both of the immigrant they carry and of the people of the Nation who are called upon to receive him, educate him, and make him a citizen, these transportation companies ought to be put under such pressure of law that they will find it more profitable to aid than to hamper the efforts of the Federal Government.

Comment on Current Books

The Church and the Barbarians This little volume narrates the history of the Church during the years A.D. 461–1003. It is necessarily condensed in style; often an allusion has to do service for an explanation. It is written from the point of view of one who believes that the Church is charged with the duty of preserving and defending a "deposit of faith," and who assumes that heresy is error and orthodoxy truth. (The Church and the Barbarians. By Rev. William Holden Hutton, B.D. The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.)

Addresses before the Student Volunteers "The Relation of Diplomacy to Foreign Missions," by the Hon. John W. Foster, "Missionary Work in the East," by the British Ambassador, Sir Henry Mortimer Durand, "The Secular Press and Foreign Missions," by the managing editor of the Toronto "Globe," Mr. J. A. Macdonald—addresses before the Fifth International Convention of the Student Volunteer Movement at Nashville last March—constitute an attractive and valuable trilogy of important papers. Not less attractive is the form in which they are presented by the typographer, whose cultivated taste makes printing a fine art. The gems of typography produced at Sewanee show that some of the best work in this country is done there; for which see the announcement and catalogue. (Addresses before the Student Volunteers. The University Press of Sewanee, Tennessee. In loose cover wrappers, separately bound, 50 cents each.)

La Divina Commedia Dante (or Durante) Alighieri called his principal work "The Comedy;" the adjective "Divine" was added by those who came after him. The Comedy is divided into three parts—Hell, Purgatory, Heaven. Each has thirty-three cantos, of which the meter—the Italian terzina—is also founded on the number three. The Divine Comedy is the narration of a journey undertaken by the poet himself to the three kingdoms of the dead. Professor Fornaciari, the editor of the present edition, says that, according to the opinion of most critics, the journey lasted seven

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days; we would add, nevertheless, that according to one of the most eminent critics, Fraticelli, the journey lasted ten days. Dante himself represents sinful man, who, earnestly desiring pardon and enlightenment, is led by Virgil and then by Beatrice. They reveal to him the horror of human vice (the Inferno or Hell), the methods for correcting sinful tendencies (the Purgatorio), and, finally, the supernatural virtues and Divinity itself (the Paradiso, or Heaven). No poet ever had greater vision or achieved greater accomplishment. "La Divina Commedia" has deservedly passed through many editions in many languages. The latest, in Italian, is one which has always been needed by Dante lovers—a clearly printed, low-priced, vest-pocket edition. The present charming little volume sells in Italy for three lire (sixty cents), and should find favor in this country as well. While the text is based on three of the most recent and prized editions, those of Casini, Passerini, and Scartazzini-Vandelli, Professor Fornaciari has acted independently whenever he chose. Of course the edition's minute size prevents comment at great length, hence the notes are, for the most part, restricted to those questions which many persons of culture even would hardly be able to answer. (La Divina Commedia. By Dante Alighieri. Ulrico Hoepli, Milan, Italy.)

The Evidential Value of Prophecy An accomplished scholar, at present a young Anglican curate, presents in this volume both the maximum and the minimum estimate of the validity of the prophecies relating to the Messiah of the Hebrew hope, which conservatively applied criticism may be considered to justify. His minimum, stated at the end of the volume, was stated by Dean Stanley more than forty years ago, and is irrefragable. An unparalleled expectation of a universal Prince of Peace existed for centuries among pious Israelites. A character equally unparalleled subsequently appeared in Jesus, the greatest moral dynamic known to history. The correspondence of such a hope with such a fulfillment is no accident. Mr. Edghill judiciously refrains from pressing some texts as far as former exegetes, but places on others an extreme estimate; *e.g.*, Psalm cx. 1 is pronounced more influential on Christian thought than any other passage of Scripture. His general treatment of the subject, more considerate than this, is an elaborate and skillful defense of conservative ground. (An Enquiry into the Evidential Value of Prophecy. By E. A. Edghill, M.A. The Macmillan Company, New York. $2.)

The Gospel in Action This volume of recent extempore addresses by the Bishop of London is well named. For directness and plainness of speech he sets a mark for all shepherds of the people. It is the same whether he is addressing a group of common men, or of fashionable women, or of Oxford students; his speech is pointed both as to faults and duties, but always with tact and courtesy. Bishop Ingram served apprenticeship as a parish priest for nine years in one of the poorest parts of London's East End, and has carried into his well-deserved bishopric the enthusiasm for humanity, and the conviction of the sufficiency of Christ as the healer of its wounds, which his experience there confirmed. The Christian man or woman is not enviable who can read these sermons without a quickening of the pulse. (The Gospel in Action. By Right Rev. Arthur F. Winnington Ingram, D.D. Thomas Whittaker, New York. $1.40, net.)

Humaniculture A phrase of the author's states the subject matter of this book: "The problem has now shifted its ground from how to cure a man . . . in a hospital to the cure of a man in a . . . sanitarium. The real problem still remains: how to prevent a man in a home from acquiring disease." The author deplores the fact that in all ages physicians have devoted themselves to the cure rather than the prevention of disease, though in saying so he seems to us to forget the fact that the discovery of vaccine and of the habits of the stegomyia mosquito are leading to the extinction of smallpox and yellow fever; that the now widely diffused knowledge of the danger of drinking water whose source is impure, and of eating oysters contaminated by sewage, has greatly lessened the number of typhoid victims; and that modern perfected house plumbing has done away with the miseries once caused by breathing sewer gas. But while we believe that man has learned how to resist many poisonous substances which attack him from outside, we quite agree with Dr. Higgins that he knows little how to avoid auto-toxæmia, or self-poisoning. Professor Bouchard (says Dr. Higgins) has demonstrated that the body itself is engaged in the manufacture of poisons both in health and in disease. Some of the diseases caused by these poisons are, gout, rheumatism, neuralgia, asthma, Bright's disease, and derangements of the heart, arteries, and nerves. In order to avoid these self-produced diseases it will not be necessary to adopt a strained and unnatural mode of life, but to learn the proper use of those organs over whose func-

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tions we can exercise control. The most important of these organs are those of digestion. It is now known that only through the exercise of the faculty of mastication and insalivation can the stomach and intestines perform their functions in a non-poison-producing way. Children have always been urged to "chew their food," but the real significance of this act has only recently been demonstrated, and by an American, Mr. Horace Fletcher. The first half of Dr. Higgins's book is devoted to analysis and eulogy of Mr. Fletcher's theories. This is impressive, for Dr. Higgins is neither a "crank" nor a faddist, but a physician and surgeon of recognized standing in England. While his book is, unfortunately, diffuse in style and not clear in construction, it is worth reading, as are also the books of Mr. Fletcher. (Humaniculture. By Hubert Higgins. Frederick A. Stokes Company, New York. $1.50, net.)

New Studies in Dante

A well-known Dante scholar has just put forth a volume on the "Purgatory" in the "Divine Comedy." The volume is valuable for its not infrequent suggestiveness, but it would have far more popular appeal had it been more condensed. While the author gives lengthy attention to the poem in its theological aspects, he does not fail to notice all its component elements, whether the poet's inspirations were theological, or mystical, or purely poetical. An exposition is also given of the origin of the idea of purgatory in the Christian Church. As to the characters in the "Purgatorio," new light is thrown on Manfred, Sordello, Belacqua, and Matilda. (Nuovi Studii Danteschi: Il Purgatorio. By Francesco d'Ovidio. Ulrico Hoepli, Milan, Italy.)

The Unity of Will

A less ambiguous and more descriptive title of this philosophical treatise would be "The Universe as Will." All existing things and beings are forms in which the universal Will expresses itself. The Universe is the living organism of this Will, an organism consisting of a hierarchy of individuated organisms. Long before Schopenhauer recalled philosophy to the conception of Will as primal, Augustine had said, "The nature of things is the Will of God." Modern physics, resolving matter into energy, has strongly contributed to turn ontology from speculating about substances to the study of powers. Mr. Hight's treatise is quite in line with the present trend of philosophy. This, reversing the long-prevalent and still popular conception of will as the instrument of reason, recognizes will as the master and intellect as its servant, both in the individual and the universe. Will, pulsating in the movements of stars and souls and atoms, is found to be the primary and ultimate reality. Thus "the foundations of the world are moral." By will is broadly meant the self-active principle manifested in all loving, hating, seeking, shunning, striving. This is not only immanent in all existence, but also transcendent, as the ground and source of Emerson's "Over-soul," the "Living Will" apostrophized by Tennyson,

> "that shall endure
> When all that seems shall suffer shock."

It is exhibited as the mystery which no words can express, but which only true sympathy—an active coalescence of will—can apprehend, and "the knowledge of it is Religion." Such sympathy is the soil from which "inspiration" springs, and the divine Ideas that constitute "positive knowledge." An unsympathetic reader may accuse Mr. Hight of pantheism; but no pantheist ever affirms with him, "Our consciousness of freedom is no delusion." He may seem to others to be a mystic; but he contends for the logic of deeds, not words. He has borrowed from the contemplative wisdom of India in its "sublime effort of introspection," and would admit that "the final purpose of culture is the perfect attainment of that transcendent faculty." But the "insight," the positive truth thus gained, is what Socrates proposed, "the knowledge of the Self; it is fortitude, purity, patience, faith, and hope." Mr. Hight is carried so far by his "Eureka" as to disparage rather sweepingly the results obtained by contemporary science and theology. But a psalmist may be forgiven for exaggeration in affirming that "men of low degree are vanity, and men of high degree are a lie." Some of Mr. Hight's definitions are disputable. Chance is not "non-existence," but a very real thing—the incalculable element in all forecasts. Individuality is not an evil, self-isolating independency, but character as organized about a distinct aim in life. Whatever be its defects, Mr. Hight's line of thought is soundly practical, and its effect is tonic and uplifting. (The Unity of Will. By George Ainslie Hight. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3, net.)

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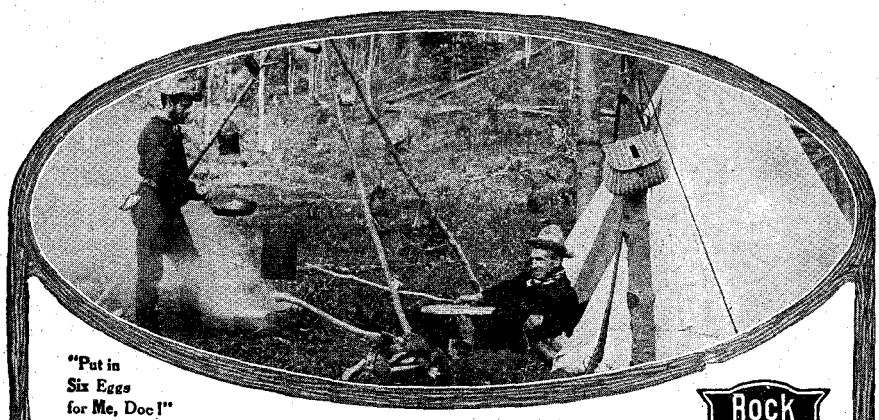

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